SCHOOL LIFE

PRR
PERIODICAL ROOM
GENERAL LIBRARY
UNIV. OF MICH.

April 1939
VOLUME 24
NUMBER 7

OFFICIAL ORGAN
OF THE OFFICE
OF EDUCATION

UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF
THE INTERIOR
WASHINGTON

WRITE

The Office of Education,
United States
Department of the Interior,
Washington, D. C.

FOR PUBLISHED INFORMATION ON:

Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education

Elementary Education

Secondary Education

Colleges and Professional Schools

School Administration

School Finance

School Legislation

Exceptional Child Education

Rural School Problems

School Supervision

School Statistics

School Libraries

Agricultural Education

Educational Research

School Building

Negro Education

Commercial Education

Homemaking Education

Radio Education

Forums

Native and Minority Group Education

Vocational Education

Parent Education

Physical Education

Rehabilitation

Teacher Education

CCC Education

Health Education

Industrial Education

Educational Tests and Measurements

Comparative Education

Adult Education

SCHOOL LIFE

APRIL 1939
Volume 24 Number 7

CONTENTS OF THIS ISSUE

			PAGE
Editorials	Teaching Controversial Issues	J. W. Studebaker	193
	On This Month's Cover		
	Among the Authors		
	Convention Calendar		
Rural Youth as a National Asset		*J. W. Studebaker*	195
Some Problems in Federal-State Relationships in Education		*Bess Goodykoontz*	197
School Tours		*Carl A. Jessen*	199
Residential Schools for the Blind		*Elise H. Martens*	201
Expenditures for School Plant Operation		*Lester B. Herlihy*	204
The Mystery of Tobacco		*James Frederick Rogers*	205
Education in Estonia		*Peter Alexander Speek*	206
State Aid for Pupil Transportation		*Timon Covert*	209
Educators' Bulletin Board		*Susan O. Futterer, Ruth A. Gray*	210
Governor's Power of Removal		*John H. McNeely*	211
Guidance in CCC Camps		*Howard W. Oxley*	213
New Government Aids for Teachers		*Margaret F. Ryan*	214
Recognizing Possibilities in Elementary Science		*Helen K. Mackintosh*	215
Developments in College Libraries		*Ralph M. Dunbar*	217
Libraries Turn Attention Toward Young People		*Nora E. Beust*	218
The Vocational Summary		*C. M. Arthur*	220
Educational News			222
	In Public Schools	*W. S. Deffenbaugh*	
	In Libraries	*Ralph M. Dunbar*	
	In Other Government Agencies	*Margaret F. Ryan*	

Congress, in 1867, established the Office of Education to "collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories"; to "diffuse such information as shall aid in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems"; and "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." To diffuse expeditiously information and facts collected, the Office of Education publishes SCHOOL LIFE, a monthly service, October through July. SCHOOL LIFE provides a national perspective of education in the United States.

Order its service for 1 year by sending $1.00 to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. To foreign countries, $1.50 a year. On all orders for 100 copies or more to be sent to one address, the Superintendent of Documents allows a discount of 25 percent. Enter subscriptions also through magazine dealers. Send all editorial communications pertaining to SCHOOL LIFE to Editorial Division, Office of Education. United States Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C. The printing of SCHOOL LIFE has been approved by the Director of the Budget.

EDITORIAL

SCHOOL LIFE

IS ISSUED MONTHLY, EXCEPT AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, BY THE
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Secretary of the Interior, HAROLD L. ICKES
Commissioner of Education, J. W. STUDEBAKER
Assistant Commissioner of Education, BESS GOODYKOONTZ
Asst. Comm. for Vocational Education, J. C. WRIGHT
Editor, WILLIAM DOW BOUTWELL
Acting Editor, OLGA JONES
Assistant Editors, MARGARET F. RYAN, JOHN H. LLOYD
Art Editor, GEORGE A. MCGARVEY

Terms: Subscription, $1.00 per year, in advance; to foreign countries in which the mailing frank of the United States is not recognized, $1.50. *Club rate:* For orders of 100 copies or more to be sent in bulk to one address within the United States, the Superintendent of Documents allows a discount of 25 percent.
Remittance should be made to the SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

SCHOOL LIFE is indexed in Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, Education Index, and is recommended in the American Library Association's "Periodicals for the Small Library."

APRIL 1939

On This Month's Cover

The modern school is a wholesome, happy place. The scene on this month's cover is from the new Training Building at State Teachers College, Cheney, Wash. It could be reproduced on thousands of schoolgrounds throughout the United States, where proper educational facilities are provided. We appreciate the courtesy of the Public Works Administration in supplying this photograph.

Among the Authors

PETER ALEXANDER SPEEK, author of the second article in the series on *Education in the Baltic States*, is a native of Estonia and had his early training in the schools of that country. He attended the University of Tartu for 3 years as a student of economics, statistics, and law. Later he completed his studies for the degrees of master and doctor in the University of Wisconsin. He has been connected with the Carnegie Corporation of New York as a research and field investigator, was for some years in charge of the Slavonic Division of the Library of Congress, and is now with the United States Department of Labor. Dr. Speek presents an interesting picture of education in Estonia.

J. W. STUDEBAKER, Commissioner of Education, states in his article entitled, *Rural Youth as a National Asset*, that "new and more modern rules of the game for operating public education, especially in the rural areas of many sections of our Nation, are long overdue."

Teaching Controversial Issues

WE MUST GIVE youth real experiences in grappling with controversial issues and with significant modern problems, and we must do this during several years before the pupils leave the secondary schools.

A citizen in a democratic society must know how to think and talk about public issues concerning which there is an honest (or even a dishonest) difference of opinion. Young people must learn how to do this in the schools. This ability possessed in common by the people is essential to the democratic way of life. Therefore, the development of this ability is a primary obligation of public schools.

But it is not the mission of the teaching profession to force either young people or older people to accept so-called "right" thoughts or to come to "right" conclusions about controversial issues. That is the declared aim of education in dictatorships. It is also the purpose of men with totalitarian temperaments who today lead certain groups in this country. But as devotees of democracy, as believers in a system of society which recognizes the dignity and value of human personality, the aim of educators must be to make men free by teaching them to think critically and to draw upon the experience and understandings of one another.

In this rapidly changing world we suffer from the burden of obsolescent beliefs and attitudes. It is therefore one of the major tasks of education in a democracy to equip citizens with the knowledge, with the techniques, and with a grasp of working principles by which the citizens may be enabled from day to day intelligently to build up their *own* beliefs and attitudes out of the facts and experiences of their changing world. People are prepared for democratic citizenship to a large degree when they know *how* to attack their problems and how to *find out* for *themselves*. Nothing is so futile as the teaching of answers to questions which do not concern the learners at the time and will not concern them in the future.

When we suggest that the schools bring today's vital conflicts into the classroom for examination and critical study, we are not primarily interested in what the pupils may do about those specific conflicts; we merely claim that pupils live in our world today and that vital issues are real and exciting to them and are an important means of teaching them how to handle controversial issues generally. Surely if one of the purposes of education is to enable people to do better the things they will inevitably be called upon to do in any event, then an important obligation of the schools is to develop in pupils improved abilities to find their way to the most satisfactory conclusions in the midst of controversies.

In adult civic education we are definitely concerned with the immediate development of understanding of today's problems by persons who have the power to do something about those problems.

J. W. Studebaker
Commissioner of Education.

BESS GOODYKOONTZ, Assistant Commissioner of Education, in an article entitled *Some Problems of Federal-State Relationships in Education*, discusses in this issue, three important educational problems which involve Federal-State relations. Dr. Goodykoontz indicates some of the problems involved in coordinating Federal-State activities.

CARL A. JESSEN, specialist in secondary education, states "in an effort to learn what is being done by school systems in conducting school tours the Office of Education sent an inquiry form to school superintendents in all cities having 30,000 or more inhabitants." Mr. Jessen discusses the replies received to this inquiry in his article entitled *School Tours*.

RALPH M. DUNBAR, Chief, Higher Education Division, discusses *Developments in College Libraries.* He states "according to the latest figures compiled by the Office of Education, the libraries in our institutions of higher education at present contain well over 62,000,000 bound volumes." He points out that the proper utilization of the printed materials is now being stressed rather than the physical growth of the libraries.

HOWARD W. OXLEY, Director, CCC Camp Education, points out that guidance in the CCC camps has been considered the major educational activity. He states "the guidance program pays dividends not only to the enrollee but to the corps itself and to society."

★

Convention Calendar

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS. *New York, N. Y., April 25–28.*

ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. *Atlanta, Ga., April 10–14.*

NATIONAL CATHOLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *Washington, D. C., April 12–14.*

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS. *Cincinnati, Ohio, May 1–6.*

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND RECREATION. San Francisco, Calif., April 3–6.

New State School Officials

The following list shows the names of new principal State school officers reported to the Office of Education since the Educational Directory for 1938 was issued: (The Directory for 1939 will soon be off the press.)

ARKANSAS: T. H. Alford, Commissioner of Education.

CONNECTICUT: Alonzo G. Grace, Commissioner of Education.

IOWA: Jessie M. Parker, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

KANSAS: Geo. L. McClenny, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

MASSACHUSETTS: Walter F. Downey, Commissioner of Education.

NEW MEXICO: Mrs. Grace J. Corrigan, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

TENNESSEE: B. O. Duggan, Commissioner of Education.

WYOMING: Esther L. Anderson, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Regional Conference Schedules

Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, J. C. Wright, announces the following schedules for coming regional vocational conferences:

North Atlantic region:		
Agricultural education	Boston, Mass	April 4–6.
Trade and industrial education	New York, N. Y	May 17–19.
Distributive occupations education	do	May 17–22.
Southern region:		
Agricultual education	Little Rock, Ark	April 3–7.
Home economics education	Little Rock, Ark	April 3–7.
Trade and industrial education	Little Rock, Ark	April 3–6.
Distributive occupations education	do	April 3–8.
Central region:		
Trade and industrial education	Chicago, Ill	April 17–21.
Distributive occupations education	do	April 17–22.
Pacific region:		
Agricultural education	Berkeley, Calif	May 8–13.
Home economics education	do	May 8–13.
Trade and industrial education	do	May 8–12.
Distributive occupations education	do	May 8–13.

Commissioners of Education • United States Department of the Interior

During the 72 years of its existence, the Office of Education has had 10 Commissioners. From time to time, the library of the Office is called upon to furnish information about these Commissioners. In order to make certain facts concerning them readily accessible, the following table has been prepared by Edith A. Wright, of the library staff.

No.	Commissioner	Place and date of birth	Date of appointment as commissioner	Age	Appointed by President	Term of office [1]	Date of separation from service	College attended
1	Henry Barnard	Hartford, Conn. Jan. 24, 1811.	Mar. 14, 1867	56	Andrew Johnson	3 years	Mar. 15, 1870	Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
2	John Eaton	Sutton, N. H. Dec. 5, 1829.	Mar. 16, 1870	41	Ulysses S. Grant	16 years	Aug. 5, 1886	Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.
3	N. H. R. Dawson	Charleston, S. C. Feb. 14, 1829.	Aug. 5, 1886 [2]	57	Grover Cleveland	3 years	Sept. 3, 1889	St. Joseph's College, Mobile, Ala. [3]
4	William T. Harris	North Killingly, Conn. Sept. 10, 1835.	Sept. 12, 1889	54	Benjamin Harrison	17 years	June 30, 1906	Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
5	Elmer E. Brown	Kiantone, N. Y. Aug. 28, 1861.	July 1, 1906	45	Theodore Roosevelt	5 years	June 30, 1911	Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. University of Halle-Wittenberg, Germany.
6	Philander P. Claxton	Bedford County, Tenn. Sept. 28, 1862.	June 8, 1911	49	William H. Taft	10 years	June 1, 1921	University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
7	John J. Tigert	Nashville, Tenn. Feb. 11, 1882.	June 2, 1921	39	Warren G. Harding	7 years	Aug. 31, 1928	Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn. Oxford University, England.
8	William J. Cooper	Sacramento, Calif. Nov. 24, 1882.	Feb. 11, 1929	47	Herbert Hoover	4¼ years	July 10, 1933	University of California, Berkeley.
9	George F. Zook	Fort Scott, Kans. Apr. 22, 1885.	July 11, 1933	48	Franklin D. Roosevelt	1 year	June 30, 1934	University of Kansas, Lawrence. Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
10	John W. Studebaker	McGregor, Iowa June 10, 1887.	Oct. 23, 1934	47	do			Leander Clark College, Toledo, Iowa. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

[1] Approximate.

[2] Commissioner Dawson was appointed by the President, Aug. 3, 1886; the appointment was confirmed by the Senate Aug. 5, 1886; but Dawson did not enter upon his duties until Sept. 27, 1886.

[3] Now Spring Hill College, Spring Hill, Ala.

DEPOSITED BY THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

APR 5 '39

Rural Youth as a National Asset[1]

by J. W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education

★★★ The virility of democracy comes largely from individual freedom of expression, from the drive of individual initiative. But from time to time in the evolution of democratic government it becomes obviously necessary in the interests of the general welfare, indeed in the interests of democracy itself, that the unorganized, uncoordinated, more or less self-dissipating and self-neutralizing powers and effects of what has become a sprawling, chaotic individualism should be brought into a form which makes possible what we commonly call good organization and administration, that is, an orderly handling of a large number of inter-related social forces which for the benefit of all concerned must be carried forward according to accepted rules of the game. What is needed in our country to insure the preservation and improvement of democracy is not an absence of rules for the game of managing our common lives but rather a much more pervasive, thorough understanding of the problems we face, so that the constantly changing rules of the game will be improved and will be more truly the expression of the rank and file of the people—rules democratically agreed upon.

New and more modern rules of the game for operating public education, especially in the rural areas of many sections of our Nation, are long overdue. The extreme individualism which originally, for good reasons, geared our school systems to the era of cowpaths and mud roads must now be replaced by a larger conception of the role of education in a democracy and of the practical ways through which our basic social machinery for public enlightenment—the public-school system—may be enabled to speed up and make more efficient its processes for securing and maintaining the degree of enlightenment which is essential to our democratic way of life.

Opportunities Should Be Equal

If our rural youth are to be increasingly more valuable as national assets they must be given educational advantages equal to the educational opportunities available to the youth in urban centers. We should democratize education in the Nation if we expect education to produce the essential safeguards of democracy.

This large problem of modernizing rural education will have to be solved if rural youth and rural life are to be given the chance to become the national assets which are clearly possible of development.

Guidance for rural youth is likewise a very broad and technical field. In its broadest sense all of education is guidance and all of guidance is education. But there has been emerging, especially during the past two decades, a body of principles, of subject matter and of techniques which may be more precisely thought of as being peculiar to what we have come to think of as guidance, particularly guidance of adolescents, for young people and adults.

Of course what we all really want is not merely a set of labels for the numerous aspects of education. We want an accumulation of educational outcomes which represent constantly enlarging social values. But we have learned that such outcomes are not the result of accident or wishful thinking; they result only from good organization and administration designed to give power and effect to significant social vision. In good administration we properly bring together in the several respective units of a scheme the functions that belong together, and then we give these units certain appropriate labels; hence such terms in education as "guidance," "art department," "agricultural education," "journalism."

It is clear, therefore, that the potential assets of rural life and rural youth will not be properly developed unless the complete organization of public education in rural areas, and available to people from rural areas, is put in gear with the known standards of modern educational administration which have been made possible by improvements in many other aspects of our lives; such as road building and transportation facilities.

Good Teaching Most Important

Within such a framework of education all of the most effective asset-developing influences of modern education can be put to work. The most important of these influences is *good teaching* in every classroom and in every group of young people anywhere outside the classroom, every hour of every day of every year. Good teaching is the most important objective toward which we should work. But there are many other types of vital educational services for children and youth and adults not ordinarily considered to be "classroom work" which must also be provided. These are services which are commonly available in many urban communities. Included among them are physical examinations and the proper follow-up work, opportunities to use a library, participation in games and sports, club activities which are sometimes put in the so-called extra-curricular category, dramatics, music organizations, community projects of civic value, radio activities, forums, student government organizations, excursions, and last among only these few which I have mentioned, but not by any means least in importance, is provision for causing each youth to feel his responsibility for seeking the fullest possible understanding of the most appropriate vocational opportunities for himself, coupled with facilities which are adequate in assisting him in making his choice and often in helping him to secure employment.

Now the quality of "good teaching" which I have in mind and which is generally available to youth in urban communities, and most of the other types of service mentioned above or implied are not at the present time available to a large majority of our rural children and youth. And these opportunities will not be available in rural areas generally nor even in many of the small cities and towns except in the degree in which certain standards of fiscal support and organization, with their appropriate adaptations, are made universal throughout the Nation. The standards to which I refer would aim at benefits to the entire country by providing necessary educational advantages directly to large numbers of our children and youth, particularly those in rural communities.

Statements of Fact

As a preface to a consideration of the standards, a few rather terse statements of fact will be helpful.

The total enrollment in the public schools of the Nation in 1936 was as follows:

Elementary schools	20, 495, 767
Secondary schools	6, 020, 268
Colleges and universities	614, 131
Total	27, 130, 166

The total number of local school districts, each having its own governing authority, and usually its taxing authority as well, exceeds 125,000. These districts range all the way from the district or township unit in some States, to what in many respects is a State unit in Delaware, with county units like or similar to those of West Virginia in between. West Virginia has 55 counties. It has 55 school districts, organized by counties. It, therefore, has only 55 local boards of education, and 55 local superintendents of schools with their respective staff organizations. My native State of Iowa, which, with respect to school organization is typical of a number of other States, has 99 counties and about 5,000 local school districts. In Iowa, educational individualism, so to speak, is still too much in vogue to satisfy the demands of modern American society for up-to-date educational outcomes. Iowa has more school board members and lay school officials than it has school teachers. Iowa presents a striking illustration of a big business in which there are more members of the board of directors than there

[1] Address before the Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth, Washington, D. C., January 26, 1939.

are of the staff of employees. In other words, the operation of elementary and secondary public education in Iowa is top heavy with nonprofessional lay management, because much of education in that State is so subdivided at the bottom as to be almost unorganized in the sense of what has come to be recognized as efficient and economical local units of school administration.

There are about 3,000 counties in the United States. The Nation would be enormously wealthier in human resources and could operate its total school system at less cost if there were not more than approximately 4,000 or 5,000 local school districts in the entire country instead of the 125,000 which now make us school-district poor. The reorganized local districts would not always be co-terminus with county boundary lines. Two or more counties might be joined together for purposes of school administration.

There are still 130,000 one-room schools in the United States and, in addition, 25,000 two-teacher schools. About 7,000 of the one-room schools have enrollments of fewer than six pupils each. Some of these one- or two-teacher schools in isolated places will need to remain for many years, but a general modernization of the local school organization would eliminate most of them. To those that must remain, superior teachers should be assigned, under inducements sufficiently generous to make them happy in their work. It requires superlative ability to make the most of the extremely difficult teaching situation in an ungraded school.

There are about 23,000 high schools in the Nation exclusive of junior high schools. In each of approximately half of these high schools there are fewer than 100 pupils. Twenty percent of them enroll fewer than 50 pupils each. There are more than 2,000 high schools each trying to offer 4 years of work with a total staff of but 2 teachers. Practically all of these small schools in rural areas employ more teachers in terms of enrollment than most cities think they can afford in their high schools. But in spite of that fact, thousands of these rural high schools operate with fewer than 4 or 5 teachers. With the expansion of the complexities of modern society and of the technical requirements of business, industry, agriculture, and social service, all clearly reflecting the need for important modifications in secondary schools involving appropriate diversification of curricular offerings, should we be surprised at the disappointments of large numbers of youth who cannot find in their small high schools the types of courses and general activities, and the quality of instruction which at once should offer new challenges to students and appeal to them as fitting their anticipated occupational needs?

The small school usually means that each teacher must teach a large number of classes each day and that for large parts of the day the pupils are unassisted and unsupervised; it means that the teacher is seldom qualified to teach in all of the many fields in which instruction must be provided; it means, moreover, that such important fields of instruction as agriculture, home economics, music, art, trades and industries, and business are not likely to be provided. The result is too often exclusively the old, limited, book-learning type of education which cannot adequately meet the needs of the rural young people who desire to take their proper places in the life of the Nation.

With reference to sources of total local school revenue receipts, the facts for 1935–36 for all States combined show the following averages:

	Percent
From State funds	29. 3
From county funds	7. 2
From local district funds	63. 0
From Federal funds	. 5
Total	100. 0

Throughout all of the States the contribution by the Federal Government is relatively negligible. In no State is it more than 2.6 percent. But the proportions of sharing by the State, the counties, and the local school districts, when looked at in the records of the 48 States, present a queer assemblage of inconsistencies.

The State treasury in Delaware pays nearly 90 percent of the total local school bill. The local districts provide 8 percent of it, and the Federal Government 2 percent. The picture for North Carolina is about the same.

Viewed from the standpoint of the escape of the State from its responsibility for the general support of local schools, Iowa again is typical of 28 States in which the States do not assume as much as a third of the cost of supporting local education. About a dozen States in all support local education only to the extent of about 10 percent of its full cost. As an illustration, the facts for Iowa will be revealing.

	Percent
Support from the State	1. 6
Support from the counties	2. 7
Support from the local districts	95. 3
Support from the Federal Government	. 4
Total	100. 0

Purposes and Standards

Here are some of the purposes and standards toward which we should work in our efforts to help rural youth:

1. Since each State has accepted education as one of its primary responsibilities, the State should clearly specify what it regards as being a foundation program of educational service which should be available on equal terms to all children and youth throughout the State, including teachers who should be paid uniform minimum salaries, plus supplies, equipment, etc.

2. Legislation should be passed in each State providing that no local school district in the State need contribute a larger proportion of its own local resources than any other district as its share of the foundation program.

3. The State should specify a local tax rate for school purposes and should pay out of State funds the part of the cost of the foundation program which any school district is unable to meet with the proceeds of the specified tax rate.

These three principles or standards for State school support may, of course, be adapted somewhat to meet special situations, but in the main they form the basis upon which States may work toward modern systems of education under modern principles of fiscal support.

Coincident with the acceptance of more democratic plans for State support of a program of equalized State-wide opportunity for education, there should be inaugurated policies looking toward more modern organization of district schools.

4. The small district should be abandoned as a unit of school administration. With rare exceptions each new and enlarged school administrative district should involve as a minimum a gross population of approximately 25,000 people. Many of the reorganized districts would have populations of 50,000 or more, but even if the minimum population for a school district, as suggested above, were more generally achieved through the processes of reorganization, certain educational services in general, including guidance, would be provided in large numbers of places where they are now entirely absent, and all educational functions would operate on a much higher level of effectiveness. A school district with only as many as 25,000 persons in the gross population would have in it approximately 6,000 children of school age. Such a district is large enough to justify a competent professional staff of administrative and supervisory persons without whom city school systems today do not assume that the children and youth in the classrooms can be adequately served. Such a school district would have approximately 4,800 elementary-school pupils and 1,200 high-school pupils. If the area were densely populated and good roads prevailed or could be built, the area could be effectively served by about 8 elementary schools of 600 pupils each and by 2 high schools, each with an enrollment of about 600 pupils. If the area were sparsely settled a larger number of schools somewhat smaller in size would of necessity have to be provided. With few exceptions rural elementary schools should eventually enroll not fewer than 125 pupils with about 4 teachers in each; rural high schools should enroll not fewer than 150 pupils each with about 6 teachers for each school.

5. What can the Office of Education do to help the States develop the potential assets of youth? The Office now has a very competent but nevertheless only a skeleton staff in educational administration consisting of one person in each of a few of the important fields, such as State school administration, school finance, city school administration, rural schools, and educational legislation. No relatively small sum of Federal money could affect more pro-

(Concluded on page 204)

Some Problems of Federal-State Relationships in Education

by Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant Commissioner of Education

★★★ In a federation of sovereign States such as this country is, it is inevitable that the maintenance of educational facilities should present problems both between the States and between the Federal Government and the States. Some of these Federal-State relationships in educational matters have assumed such importance in recent years, or the practices evolved have been of such general interest as to justify some analysis. Briefly then, three educational problems which involve Federal-State relations will be defined: (1) educational planning as a phase of the work of Federal and State planning boards; (2) the education of children residing on Federal areas; and (3) the inclusion of State residential schools in the State's educational programs. I shall try to describe the present situation so far as each one is concerned and to indicate some of the problems of coordinating Federal-State activities rather than to analyze or evaluate any of the agencies involved.

Educational Planning

The ideal and the fact of long-range planning of governmental programs have developed rapidly in recent years.

According to a report issued by the National Resources Committee in March 1938, State planning boards have been established by 45 States since 1933, bringing the total to 48, including Hawaii, Alaska, and the District of Columbia. At first created by order of the governor, planning boards have been made permanent statutory agencies in 42 of the commonwealths.

Membership on the boards ordinarily includes both lay members and State department heads ex officio. In four States the boards are composed entirely of lay members. At the other extreme, three States have boards composed solely of ex officio members. The State agencies most frequently represented on the boards are highways, health, conservation, and the State agricultural colleges. Of the 194 State officials on State planning boards 52 represent agencies concerned with rural land use; 44 come from State engineering departments; 27 from State departments of education and State universities. Eleven State departments of education are represented.

As defined by the National and State planning commissions, State planning has come to mean a systematic effort to work out interrelated long-range programs for wise use of the resources of a State. The process involves three distinct phases: First, survey activities through which boards obtain an estimate of the situation; second, the formulation of a plan for dealing with the problems; and third, the correlation of the plans of the several individual State departments concerned. It is this third phase which justifies an over-all, coordinating State agency. State boards have not on the whole arrived at the plan-making stage. For the most part their activities have been devoted to the collection of basic data fundamental to the formulation of comprehensive plans. Emphasis has so far been put on the development of long-period programs for land use, for water use, for highways, for public works, and for other types of governmental activity involving capital outlays. The reports of only 15 State planning boards included studies on education when the report was issued. The boards recognize that if planning is to be comprehensive it must include social planning as well as physical planning, but the major emphasis for the immediate future will continue on physical aspects of the State's resources.

Naturally, the relation between State planning boards and the National Resources Committee is close. National planning cannot function without the support of basic studies carried on in the States. Neither can State planning boards function adequately without the support of a coordinating central committee. The National Resources Committee has aided State boards in a variety of ways: First, by promoting the organization of State planning boards; next, by assisting in staffing of State boards; and finally, through direct financial assistance. In the earlier stages of the work the committee assigned consultants to each State. These men frequently became directors of the State planning program. As the State boards became more firmly established the National Resources Committee inaugurated a policy of assigning consultants to the States on a part-time basis.

An illustration of how this works in the case of education may be given from an experience of the Office of Education in working with the National Resources Committee on a problem involving a certain State planning board. In that State the legislature is confronted each biennium with requests for appropriations from the board of regents for the university and from the State board of education for normal schools. Therefore the legislature in seeking a way to secure an impartial appraisal of the building needs of all of the State institutions passed a law requesting the State planning board to report to the legislature on the building needs of the State's institutions—educational, eleemosynary, and penal. The board finding itself confronted with problems upon which it needed outside assistance, called upon the National Resources Committee for expert service. The National Resources Committee in turn asked the Office of Education to assign a staff member to work with the State planning board, his expenses to be paid by the National Resources Committee.

Something of the extent of this service on a national basis may be seen from the fact that during the period 1934–38, eleven and a half millions of dollars were spent for State planning. Of that amount two and one-quarter millions were contributed by the National Resources Committee, and nearly two and a half millions came from State funds. The balance of the expenditure came from relief appropriations for the employment of staff members under the employing regulations of the Works Progress Administration.

The National Resources Committee's report calls special attention to the importance of the establishment in each State of effective working relationships between the State planning boards and the several departments of the State government. It cautions State planning boards against any invasion of the jurisdiction of other State departments, most of which consider that planning for the field of their especial responsibility is a function of their department rather than of any general over-all department of the State.

At present then, questions of policy facing education agencies interested in long-range planning for education include these: How may the interests of public education be included in major national, regional, and State surveys; and how may education officials cooperate most effectively both in surveys and in preparation of long-range plans involving education?

Education of Children on Federal Areas

The Federal Government in carrying on its various functions and activities throughout the Nation and its outlying parts, reserves certain areas from State and local government control. Among these areas are the District of Columbia, the Canal Zone, the national parks, reclamation dam sites, Indian reservations, the national forests, Army posts and stations, navy yards and naval and marine stations, Coast Guard stations, life-saving stations, public health service hospitals, lighthouse stations, and numerous others.

For some of these areas Congress regularly

provides Federal funds for educational purposes, but for the great majority of Federal reservations no Federal funds are provided for the education of children living thereon. In a study recently made by the Advisory Committee on Education approximately 29,000 children 6 to 18 years of age were found living on 686 reservations and projects, not including Indian reservations. Of these children, about 21,000 were enrolled in public schools without the payment of tuition charges. The cost of education for those children is borne by State and local taxpayers.

Since lands set aside in Federal Government reserves cannot be taxed, since the income of Federal employees cannot be taxed by the States in which they live, and since frequently no direct taxes are paid by these employees on purchases for personal or household use, State and local school administrative units are left with the entire burden of supporting the educational facilities provided for these children unless their parents pay tuition. If proper educational facilities are to be assured for all children on these reservations without placing an undue burden on the various States or local school administrative units or on their parents, assistance is needed.

The history of legislative efforts to provide adequate educational facilities for children on government reservations and property dates back for approximately three decades. One of the principal issues has always been: Should Federal funds be made available to the score or more of Federal agencies controlling the Federal areas, so that a State department of education shall deal individually with each one represented in the State, or shall one fund be made available for distribution to the States so as to meet this problem on the basis of working agreements with each reservation and project.

State Residential Schools

In every State there are several public residential institutions for handicapped children which are generally considered and which ordinarily are called schools. These are the State residential schools for the blind, for the deaf, for the delinquent (or socially maladjusted), and even for the mentally deficient. Some of these schools are functioning under the general administration and supervision of State education authorities, but a larger number are administered by State boards of public welfare, public institutions, charities, or allied functions. There is an increasing tendency to make State schools for the blind and the deaf an integral part of the State educational system, more than one-third of such institutions now being administered either by the State education authority alone or by that agency in cooperation with some other State or private board. State schools for delinquents are not so generally considered parts of the State educational system, and institutions for the mentally deficient even less so.

Several years ago the Commissioner of Education called a conference at the Office of Education on problems of Coordination of Effort for the Education of Exceptional Children. Representatives of residential institutions for handicapped children attended the conference, and one of these, coming from a leading private school for the mentally deficient, made the following statement:

"There is a tendency also for the State institutions to fall outside the usual supervisory agencies which State departments of education may provide. Some State schools or institutions are in welfare departments; others are in educational departments. In any case, these public institutions provide school departments that often operate without State supervision. The experiences of the public-school system ought to be carried over into the educational departments of public institutions, and this should be provided by empowering State departments of education to supervise all State institutions, or at least the educational departments of such institutions."

Several months ago the Commissioner of Education called another conference, this time of representative administrators of residential schools for the blind, the deaf, and the delinquent. Unanimously, this group voiced the conviction that their institutions should be considered schools, and that they should have a closer relationship with their State departments of education.

There are, no doubt, many administrators of residential schools who are content to remain outside the jurisdiction of the State educational system. Some of them probably prefer the degree of independence which they now experience. In relation to those who do desire closer contact, however, the State education authority faces a valuable opportunity and a grave responsibility: An opportunity to develop in the residential school a progressive educational program looking toward the adequate adjustment of the pupils enrolled when they leave the school to take their places in their respective communities; and a responsibility to do whatever is possible to bring about an integration of all educational facilities within the State. The same principles govern the education of handicapped children everywhere, in residential and in day schools alike. If there is to be an integrated development of the program, the same educational agency should have a leading responsibility toward both types of schools.

So far the Office of Education has taken the point of view that State residential schools are educational agencies. The Office has called their officials to Washington for conferences; it has continued to collect and publish statistics of their operation; the revised Vocational Bulletin No. 1 which states policies for the administration of vocational education includes specific reference to the conditions under which residential institutions may participate in the vocational education program but much still needs to be done by school officials to hasten acceptance of the point of view that residential schools are truly schools.

The Challenge

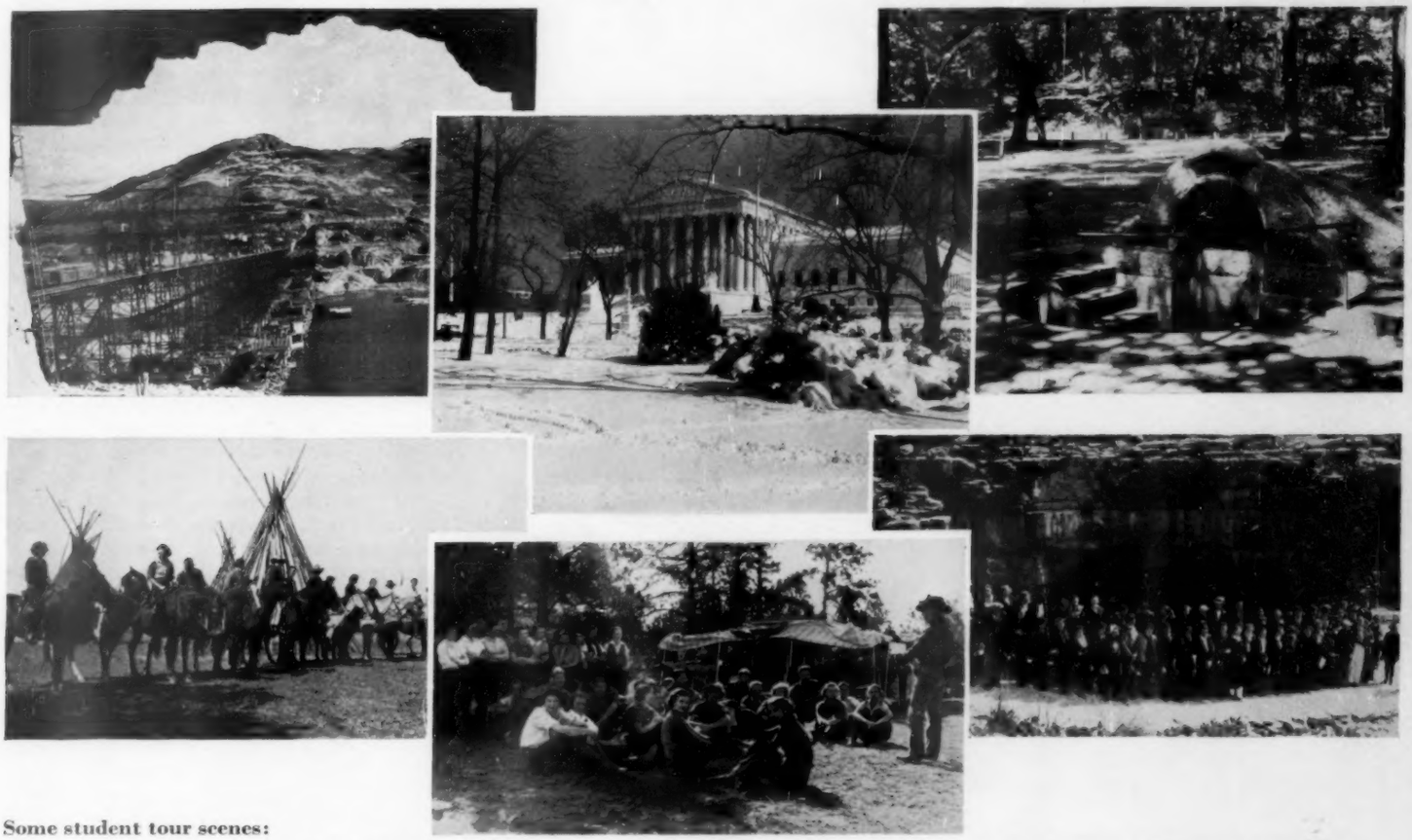
The teachers of the J. C. Murphy Junior High School of Atlanta, Ga., publish a monthly magazine, *The Challenge*. The object of this publication is to make it possible for every teacher in the school to become familiar with professional literature without having to read all the magazines that are received at the school library. Annotations call the attention of teachers to worthwhile articles.

★ ★ ★

An illustration from *The White Stag* (Viking), written and illustrated by Kate Seredy, to whom the annual Newbery award was presented by a section of the American Library Association for the most distinguished children's book of the year. The legend of *The White Stag* is the romantic and heroic tale of the light that guided the Huns to the land "between two rivers, surrounded by mountains." The Newbery Medal was first given in 1922 to Hendrick Van Loon for writing and illustrating *The Story of Mankind*.

School Tours

by Carl A. Jessen, Specialist in Secondary Education



Some student tour scenes:

Top left: **Grand Coulee Dam on the upper Columbia River.**
Top center: **United States Supreme Court Building.**
Top right: **Spangler's Spring at Gettysburg.**
Above left: **Horseback riding being enjoyed by a student tour group.**
Above center: **Indian lore by the camp fire.**
Above right: **Carlsbad Caverns in New Mexico being entered by a student group.**

★★★ The modern school is increasingly emphasizing the importance of learning through concrete meaningful experience and observation. By this is not meant that deductive processes have been abandoned or that book learning as such has been discredited. Teachers today are, however, recognizing that study should be linked closely to experience and that understanding is perfected, interest heightened, and retention facilitated by practice of the processes studied and by observation, both within and outside the school, of the facts and conditions discussed.

The school excursion is one of the ways in which observation is employed. Field trips in connection with work in science, social science, fine arts, vocational subjects, and other fields of study are becoming more and more common, and many school systems have made definite provisions looking toward the stimulation and control of such trips. Usually these trips are local in character requiring only an hour or two, or at most a half day. Less frequently they are for greater distances and require one or more days for their completion.

Inquiry Made

In an effort to learn in a preliminary way what was being done by school systems in conducting longer tours, the Office of Education sent an inquiry form to the school superintendents in all cities having 30,000 or more inhabitants. There are 326 such cities in the United States. At the suggestion of some superintendents, forms were sent to high-school principals within their districts. In this way the total mailing list was expanded to include 381 names. Inquiry was made regarding number of tours within a period of 2 school years, their destinations, preparation for them, costs, and general conditions under which the trips were conducted.

The large majority of those responding stated that they did not plan school trips of longer distances except for school bands, athletic teams, and contestants of various kinds. Thirty-nine said that they did organize longer trips for school pupils. Of the 39 reports, 23 came from New England and Middle Atlantic States, 6 from the South, 7 from the Middle West, and 3 from the Mountain States and Pacific coast.

A total of 72 tours were reported by these 39 schools. Individual trips lasted from 1 to 93 days. More than one-third of the total number were 1-day trips and another third were 2 or 3 days long. It is apparent that costs as well as school policy tend to eliminate the over-night stop from school excursions.

Destinations and Purposes

Washington, D. C., is given as destination for two-fifths of the tours. In part this may be because the large majority of the cities

canvassed—those with a population of 30,000 or above—are located along the eastern seaboard with easy access to Washington. Nine of the schools reporting indicate that the trip to Washington is an annual occurrence. West Point is second in frequency as destination. New York, Boston, and Carlsbad Caverns are the only other destinations reported by two or more schools.

Since only occasionally were the purposes of the tours indicated in the reports, it is somewhat difficult to classify them in this respect. It is apparent that most of them are made to some important city not too far distant from the school. Probably four-fifths of the trips are of this type. At times one may be reasonably sure that some special feature of the city is the object of the trip. Most of the trips to Washington and West Point are undoubtedly actuated by a desire to see the Capital City and the United States Military Academy. One recognizes an historical interest in visits to the battlefields of Gettysburg and Vicksburg and in trips to Boston, San Francisco, and probably a number of other cities. Recreation and the viewing of scenic beauty probably were principal purposes of trips down the Mississippi River or into the snow-covered mountains of Colorado. Underlying many of the trips may be a scientific motive; this purpose is undoubtedly present in trips to the salt mines of Louisiana, to the large dams in Western States, and to the Carlsbad and Luray Caverns.

The spring of the year is the time when three-fourths of these trips are made. May is the most popular month followed in frequency by April and June. October appears to be the favored month in the fall of the year.

Participation and Costs

The average number of pupils participating was 149 per trip. The range was from 12 to 1,500. Preponderantly the excursions were planned for senior high school pupils and often only for members of the senior class. Inquiry was not made into how many of the trips were for both girls and boys, but the indications are that generally both girls and boys participated.

The average distance traveled was 680 miles per trip. The average mileage of 1-day excursions was 214 miles. Usually transportation was chartered, although private automobiles and school busses were sometimes used. In the large majority of cases hotels were used for overnight accommodations; only occasionally does one find trips that are of the camping-out variety.

The cost of trips where transportation is hired and overnight stops are made at hotels is about $6 to $8 per day. The pupils of many schools build up a central fund over a period of months and sometimes years by charging admission to plays, carnivals, and concerts, and by selling tickets, candy, stamps, and the like. This fund is frequently supplemented by money supplied by the pupil or his parents. More often than not, however, there is no central fund and the entire expense is borne by those making the trip.

One school reports that the pupils begin earning and saving in the ninth grade for a 4-day trip which is taken in the spring of their senior year in high school. The members of the senior class from another school take a 5-day trip to Washington, D. C., and Norfolk, Va., in chartered coaches of a train and by boat; the tour is thought of as a class project and the entire cost is met from a central fund which has been built up by the pupils throughout the years they have been in high school.

In a western State a high-school travel club operates the school tours for the benefit of its own members and other pupils. The trips are privately financed; some of them are annual, while others are occasional. The club owns its own bus, an automobile, a trailer, and complete camping equipment—much of this having been supplied through the years by donations from parents who believed in the purposes and administration of the club.

Schools and School Systems Reporting on School Tours[1]

South High School, Denver, Colo.
Wilmington (Del.) Public Schools.
Columbus (Ga.) Public Schools.
Terre Haute (Ind.) Public Schools.
Senior High School, Dubuque, Iowa.
New Orleans (La.) Public Schools.
Lewiston (Maine) High School.
Deering High School, Portland, Maine.
Vocational School, Holyoke, Mass.
Somerville (Mass.) Public Schools.
Classical High School, Springfield, Mass.
Revere (Mass.) High School.
Senior High School, Highland Park, Mich.
Central High School, Jackson, Miss.
Meridian (Miss.) Public Schools.
Central Senior High School, Trenton, N. J.
Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, N. Y.
Newburgh (N. Y.) Public Schools.
Greensboro (N. C.) Public Schools.
Omaha (Neb.) Public Schools.
Bristol Township (Ohio) Public Schools, Bristolville.
Canton (Ohio) Public Schools.
Norwood (Ohio) High School.
Allentown (Pa.) High School.
Frankford High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Germantown High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Kensington High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Northeast High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Olney High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Simon Gratz High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.
South Philadelphia High School for Boys, Philadelphia. Pa,
West Philadelphia High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
William Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Reading (Pa.) Public Schools.
Seattle (Wash.) Public Schools.
North Central High School, Spokane, Wash.
Chattanooga (Tenn.) High School.
Senior High School, Amarillo, Tex.

[1] A number of other reports were received too late for tabulation.

Educational Significance

Those replying to the inquiry were urged to submit statements regarding the educational methods used in preparing for the trips and in following up after the trip was completed to see that lasting educational results were secured. Very few gave information on these subjects; apparently the trips are most often in the nature of recreational excursions from which pupils will undoubtedly secure some educational value, but for which little educational planning is done.

Some schools, however, enhance the pleasure of the tour by taking care that it shall be educationally as well as recreationally valuable. One school principal states that "the planning is done carefully by the school's director in conjunction with representatives from the hotel, the railroad, and the sightseeing bus company. Plans include as much of the historic and modern Washington and environs as can comfortably be fitted into 3 days' time." The director of excursions in one large city reported that for both long and short trips study plans involved informational preparation for the trip, directed observation during the trip, and, following the trip, classroom use of experience and information gained. One school sends the school nurse on the trip and a teacher for every 20–25 pupils. In another school the dean of girls is in charge of the tour and has under her direction an assistant for every 25 pupils.

Many school officials consider excursions, short and long, beyond the walls of the classroom an important part of the school curriculum. This is especially true where the school happens to be located near the State capital, some large city, some historic spot, or a National or State park. One superintendent writes: "In many cases it would be almost impossible to conduct our unit of work program without the benefit of these trips. We will have had approximately 1,500 excursions of various sorts by the time school closes, made by children of all levels—elementary, junior high school, senior high school, and junior college." And another says: "It would be a fine thing for our under-privileged youth who travel little to have the opportunity of visiting the Capital City, or for the children in the prairie States to visit the mountains of the West or some ocean resort."

Second Article in the Series

Residential Schools for the Blind

by Elise H. Martens, Specialist in the Education of Exceptional Children

★★★ The organized education of the blind in the United States is a development of the past hundred years. The decade from 1830 to 1840 saw residential institutions for blind children established in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Virginia. Other States took action in succeeding years until at the present time every State makes provision for the education of the blind either in a school within its own boundaries or in a school of a neighboring State. There are also such schools in Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Philippine Islands. The total enrollment in all residential schools established for this group is approximately 6,000 pupils. In addition, about 500 blind children are being educated in day school classes organized in some of the larger city school systems of the country.

Some people suppose that a residential school for the blind serves or should serve only totally blind children. This is far from the case. There are many children who have some vision, yet insufficient to enable them to participate in regular educational activities even with the aid of sight-saving techniques. These are sometimes classified as "educationally blind" and include children who have vision of less than 20/200; that is, they are unable to see even at a distance of 20 feet what a person with normal vision can see at a distance of 200 feet. Yet between 20/200 vision and total blindness there are degrees of sight which are valuable assets to the children possessing them. Almost every school for the blind enrolls a number of pupils in this low-vision group as well as totally blind children.

Visually handicapped children having better than 20/200 vision are generally considered candidates for sight-saving classes in the public day schools. There are, to be sure, some border-line cases and other special problems which find their way into residential schools, especially when the day school system of the State does not make the necessary provision for them. The primary concern of the residential school, however, is the education of children whose vision is either totally lacking or too limited for the ordinary type of sight-saving instruction offered in day schools.

Doubly Handicapped Pupils

To be deprived of vision is tragic enough, but when that loss is accompanied by an additional serious handicap the lot of the child becomes increasingly difficult. It is estimated that there are about 2,000 people in the United States who are deprived of both sight and hearing. Educational facilities for deaf-blind children have in the past been exceedingly meager. The life and achievements of Helen Keller are a well-known example of what can be accomplished despite such handicaps, and recent developments have attempted to meet in an organized way the special needs of children so afflicted. Centers for the education of the deaf-blind have been established in connection with two schools for the blind located in New York and Massachusetts. At other residential schools attention is being given to individual cases through the efforts of teachers specially trained for the work.

Courtesy of the Wisconsin School for the Blind.

So also there are blind-crippled children, blind-subnormal children, and some deaf-blind-feebleminded. Modern schools for the blind attempt to serve the needs of mentally retarded blind children if the intellectual deficiency is not extreme. In that case, however, the child becomes a problem of the school for the mentally deficient.

In short, the school for the blind must meet not only the problems of visual deficiency common to all its charges, but also the wide array of pupil differences found in any school for the seeing. There are physical abnormalities, emotional disturbances, personality difficulties, and intellectual deviations. All of these the residential school must recognize, and its guidance program must serve the individual needs of every pupil entrusted to its care.

The Curriculum

The American Association of Instructors of the Blind has called attention to the fourfold aim in the education of the blind: Physical efficiency, social adjustment, academic achievement, and vocational preparation. It has emphasized the fact that the course of study in the residential school should be comparable to that of the public-school system of the State, with the necessary adjustments in emphasis and in methods. The high-school course is expected to be the equivalent of the 4-year course of day high schools. This frequently makes it possible for the high-school student of advanced standing to take his work in the local high school with seeing boys and girls, with provision for assistance in reading assignments. In general, the course

Little people in the playroom at the Kentucky School for the Blind.

of study in the elementary and secondary grades includes the regular academic subjects, health and physical education, musical activities, a variety of the manual arts, and some types of vocational or prevocational training.

The progressive residential school for the blind is just as keenly alert to modern advances in education as is the regular day school for the seeing. Instructional units of activity, recreational programs, dramatic organizations and other "extracurricular" activities, the use of cumulative records and standardized tests, and a guidance procedure that explores each child's capacities, interests, and difficulties are elements of an educational program no less applicable to schools for the blind than to schools for the seeing.

Throughout his educational career, the blind student in a residential school is encouraged to participate in experiences common to seeing pupils and thus to prepare himself for adult living in a seeing world. It is not unusual to see blind children actively engaged in the home-making laboratory, at the woodworker's or cobbler's bench, at the sewing machine, at the typewriter or the switchboard, on the farm, in the garden and the greenhouse, on the athletic field and the dance floor, in the swimming pool, in boy and girl scout troops, in bands and orchestras. One cannot help but marvel at the skill with which a blind student can take the high jump, or weed the vegetable garden, or turn out a piece of furniture, or prepare and serve a meal.

Special Emphases

Without sight, the blind child must obviously depend upon other senses to make contact with his environment. The use of methods involving the senses of touch and of hearing are important features in his education. The teaching of Braille reading and writing is one example of tactile methods; the use of dissected wooden relief maps in teaching geography is another example. Miniature and life-sized models constitute the basis for studying the character of buildings, bridges, dams, animals, natural phenomena, and a wide variety of other experiences.

For example, a lighthouse model built accurately to scale, as shown in the picture on the following page, was used in the fourth grade of a residential school to teach a better understanding of the functions of lighthouses and the responsibilities of lighthouse keepers. Their relationship to the whole field of navigation and human safety was explored, and the topic became the absorbing center about which an entire activity unit was built. No description, however vivid, could have taken the place of the opportunity to feel this model from top to bottom in all its parts. Thus the blind child's fingers serve as both fingers and eyes, and sensitive indeed do they become with continued practice.

His ears, too, serve the blind child well, and he learns to make the most of them on the playground and on the street as well as in the classroom. His Braille reading is supplemented by use of the talking book, a machine equivalent to a phonograph on which specially constructed records are played bringing to the listener an entire story or other piece of literature. The use of the talking book is limited, however, by the comparatively small number of records as yet available. Most of the classroom materials needed are not thus prepared, and hence Braille books still constitute the blind child's major source of written information.

Music

Musical activity is prominent in the school for the blind, not because they are as a group peculiarly gifted in this direction, but because it is one of the fields in which they can generally approximate the achievements of seeing pupils. Those who are capable of specializing in some form of musical work are given the opportunity to develop their talents. Among the instructional offerings in music included in the curriculum of residential schools are: Piano, organ, voice, chorus, harmony, music history, Braille music, orchestra and band, with individual instruction on various instruments.

Occupational Experiences

It is conceded that the first responsibility of schools for the blind is to lay the foundation for satisfying human relationships through general education and social adjustment. They are not vocational schools, nor should they place undue emphasis upon this phase of the educational program. At the same time the need of vocational preparation is recognized, for some pupils as a part of the secondary school course, but for a larger number as subsequent to it. The exploratory occupational experiences offered to all secondary pupils may be sufficiently varied to constitute an excellent foundation on the basis of which a final vocational choice can be made.

The limitations of occupational outlets hitherto imposed upon those deprived of their sight have given direction to the vocational courses offered. Broom and mop-making, chair caning, basket weaving, and piano tuning are some of the time-honored activities still unduly emphasized in many schools. Some of the more progressive and better equipped institutions, however, are pioneering in other fields, offering courses in agriculture, radio, some phases of office work, salesmanship, shoe repair, and domestic service. Artificial restrictions are being removed both by the blind themselves and by educators of the blind, so that vocational activities once thought utterly impossible for them are being undertaken with optimism and success. For some, the university or professional school offers specialized training in intellectual or artistic pursuits beyond the secondary level.

Administration of Schools

Of the 58 residential schools for the blind reporting statistical data to the Office of

A lighthouse model 26 inches high, used at the Ohio State School for the Blind.

Education for the year 1935–36, 23 in continental United States and 2 in the outlying parts are administered either by the State or Territorial educational authorities or through a cooperative relationship with such authorities. Fifteen schools are administered exclusively by State educational agencies, and each State legislative session sees others added to the group.

There can be no doubt that residential schools for the blind are a part of the public educational program of the State. As such they are logically the responsibility of the same agency which administers the rest of the educational program. With such an arrangement, blind boys and girls are not objects of charity sent to a "home" or a welfare institution, but they have a real place among the elementary and secondary pupils of the State. As members of that group they are entitled to all the benefits that modern education has to give. And modern citizens and educators should see that they get them.

For detailed statistical data concerning residential schools for handicapped children, see Office of Education Bulletin 1937, No. 2, vol. II, Ch. VI, Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children.—*Editor*

Australian Conference

The First Biennial Conference of the Australian Association for Pre-School Child Development was held at the University of Melbourne January 30 to February 4, 1939. Discussions were conducted on educational practices for children at the 2-, 4-, and 6-year levels, on child health and health education, child guidance and parent education, creative art and music, records, and social service work. Among those attending were teachers and members of executive boards from the different State kindergarten unions, physicians, nutritionists, welfare workers, and directors of teacher-preparation institutions. Visual education material on nutrition and hygienic conditions for building child health were demonstrated.

Among the exhibits were floor plans of the model child development centers now being constructed in the capital cities of each of the five States. The building of these centers and a 5-year program are being financed under the Federal Coronation Grant of $500,000. The general supervision of these centers is under the Federal education officer, Christine M. Heinig—formerly of the Child Development Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University—and the Federal medical officer, Dr. F. W. Clements.

★ ★ ★

Cook County Report

Cook County, Ill., recently issued a pictorial publication entitled "Highlights of Three Years' Building Progress" in that county and showing some unusually fine structures which, according to the statement of County Superintendent Noble J. Puffer, were built at a "relatively low cost per unit" and which combine beauty and utility. The pamphlet shows interiors as well as exteriors, library facilities, a "bookmobile" which carries reading materials of a variety of kinds to the more isolated schools, museum and science facilities, fireproof storage space, playground equipment, and visual aids to instruction in use.

Council Library

Cook County reports also a council concerned with the use of auditory and visual aids to instruction which functions widely in the suburban sections of the county adjacent to the city of Chicago. The council now has a library of educational materials valued at approximately $9,000, cataloged and annotated with descriptive paragraphs designed to correlate the use of films and slides with courses of study and textbooks.

N. E. A. Radio

The National Education Association announces the following time schedule for its weekly radio broadcasts:

EVERY WEDNESDAY ON NBC (RED)

Our American Schools

6:00 p. m. Eastern	4:00 p. m. Mountain
5:00 p. m. Central	3:00 p. m. Pacific

EVERY WEDNESDAY ON CBS NETWORK

This Living World

2:30 p. m. Eastern	12:30 p. m. Mountain
1:30 p. m. Central	11:30 a. m. Pacific

EVERY THURSDAY ON CBS NETWORK

New Horizons

2:30 p. m. Eastern	12:30 p. m. Mountain
1:30 p. m. Central	11:30 a. m. Pacific

EVERY SATURDAY ON NBC (RED)

Our American Schools

10:30 a. m. Eastern	8:30 a. m. Mountain
9:30 a. m. Central	7:30 a. m. Pacific

★ ★ ★

Pilgrimages Announced

The Junior Members Round Table of the New Jersey Library Association, aware of historical treasures which are largely unknown and little appreciated, is promoting a series of tours to historic spots as its part in the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the New Jersey Library Association. Focal points will center on the 13 historically important libraries founded before 1800.

Those wishing further information regarding these pilgrimages, should write to Elizabeth Madden of the Montclair Public Library, Montclair, N. J., for a copy of the pamphlet prepared for the occasion.

★ ★ ★

Will Share Experiences

The health section of the World Federation of Education Associations, which meets in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, August 6–11, 1939, is preparing a conference in which leaders and teachers, from all parts of the world, will share their experiences in health education, health services and physical education in the schools.

Program and information regarding especially arranged tours can be secured from the Executive Secretary, Health Section Secretariat, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Expenditures for School Plant Operation

by Lester B. Herlihy, Associate Statistician

★★★ Comparative data from a study of the total amounts expended for the operation of the school plant in cities of 100,000 population and more for the years 1930, 1934, and 1936, respectively, are presented in the accompanying summary table. The data are taken from the reports made by city school systems to the Office of Education for the Biennial Survey of Education.

Annual Cost Per Pupil

From the year 1930 to 1934 the average expenditure per pupil for operation of the physical plant of the school system declined from $10.98 to $9.47, a decrease of $1.51 per pupil, or 13.7 percent. The return to more normal spending restored 4 percent of this reduction by 1936 when the amount per pupil was $9.86 or about 10 percent less than the 1930 figure.

The operation item is divided into four subitems: (1) Wages of custodians, engineers, and others engaged in the operation activities; (2) supplies for custodians and engineers; (3) fuel, light, and water; and (4) other expenses for the operation of the school plant. For each of the subitems and all combined, the per capita costs are computed on the basis of the number of pupils in average daily attendance.

The cities of 100,000 to 1,000,000 population are grouped in seven regions according to geographical location. This arrangement brings together cities which are conditioned by factors common to a given region, and thus gives greater comparability to the data.

Regional comparisons reflect the differences in factors which influence the amount of the expenditure for operation of the school plant. For example, in the northeast region the average expenditure per pupil for wages of custodians, engineers, and others was $7.93 for 1936; in the southern and southwestern regions for the same year it was $3.74 and $3.52, respectively. The differences reflect the higher wage scales prevailing in the cities of the northeastern region and the greater responsibilities of custodians and engineers due to differences in climate between the North and South. The difference in volume of fuel consumed between cities of the northern and southern regions, as evidenced in the expenditure per pupil of $3.65 for the fuel and utility item in the northeast, and $3.14 in the Great Lakes regions as compared with the expenditure of $1.68 in the southern, and $1.49 in the southwestern regions, shows one influence of climate as a factor in determining expenditures.

Supplies for Custodians and Engineers

For the item of supplies for custodians and engineers, the cities of the Pacific-coast region had an expenditure per pupil consistently greater for each of the three periods than that reported by the cities of the other regions.

The 1936 average expenditure for all sections of 26 cents per pupil for operation supplies is a 33⅓-percent reduction on the 1930 amount of 39 cents per pupil. Comparative regional expenditures per pupil for these supplies reveal considerable difference in amount, particularly between cities of the northern and southern regions. Factors of economy and of climate may both enter as elements in causing such marked difference in this expenditure between regions.

The miscellaneous expense item decreased in 1936 as compared with 1930 and 1934 in all regions. However, this general trend of the miscellaneous item would appear to indicate that a stricter classification or more exact distribution was being made of the various subitems to their proper accounts.

The larger proportion, 60 percent of the total expenditure for operation of the school plant for these large city systems, was spent for wages and pay for custodians, engineers, firemen, switchboard operators, matrons, watchmen, and others connected with this major function. Fuel, light, water, power, etc., took 30 to 35 percent, and the other two subitems of supplies and of miscellaneous expenses averaged together not more than 5 percent.

Average expenditures per pupil, by public-school systems, in cities of from 100,000 to 1,000,000 population for operation of the physical plant, 1930, 1934, and 1936

Items	Per pupil expenditure for each region [1]							
	Northeast	Great Lakes	North Mississippi Valley	Southern [2]	Southwestern	Rocky Mountain	Pacific coast	All regions
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Wages for custodians and engineers:								
1930	$8.39	$7.00	$7.58	$4.17	$4.06	$4.67	$6.79	$7.29
1934	7.51	5.80	6.35	3.21	2.88	4.17	5.29	6.20
1936	7.93	6.34	6.74	3.74	3.52	4.56	6.72	6.67
Supplies for custodians and engineers:								
1930	.42	.44	.51	.19	.31	.35	.47	.39
1934	.26	.26	.30	.14	.22	.21	.42	.23
1936	.30	.30	.31	.17	.30	.23	.48	.26
Fuel, water, and light:								
1930	3.99	3.60	3.36	1.81	1.73	2.44	2.53	2.97
1934	3.39	3.11	2.70	1.41	1.29	1.68	1.96	2.51
1936	3.65	3.14	2.82	1.68	1.49	1.98	2.50	2.65
Miscellaneous expense:								
1930	.46	.54	.24	.25	.34	.47	1.01	.33
1934	.28	.29	.25	.13	.18	.48	.60	.53
1936	.30	.35	.31	.14	.20	.37	.36	.28
All items:								
1930	13.26	11.58	11.69	6.42	5.58	7.94	10.80	10.98
1934	11.44	9.46	9.60	4.89	4.57	6.54	8.27	9.47
1936	12.18	10.13	10.18	5.73	5.51	7.14	10.06	9.86
1930, 1934, and 1936 combined	12.91	10.35	10.26	5.64	5.23	7.28	9.83	10.66

[1] The following 28 States contain the cities with populations of 100,000 to 1,000,000 that comprise the several regions used in this table: 1. Northeast—Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island; 2. Great Lakes—Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin; 3. North Mississippi Valley—Illinois, Kansas, Minnesota, and Missouri; 4. Southern—Alabama, Delaware, Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, Tennessee, and Virginia; 5. Southwestern—Oklahoma and Texas; 6. Rocky Mountain—Colorado and Utah; 7. Pacific Coast—California, Oregon, and Washington.

[2] Excluding Washington, D. C.

Rural Youth

(Concluded from page 196)

foundly for good the organization and administration of education in the States than an amount of about $10,000,000 to be distributed annually through the Office of Education to the States for studies, many of which would be cooperative, and for demonstrations. A small percentage of this sum should be available to the Office of Education for the administration of the studies and demonstrations which would be wholly under the control of State departments of education and other educational agencies. Such a sum would prove to be an excellent investment for the Federal Government, for many reasons, but one certain result alone would justify it, namely, the most scientific determination of long-time school-building programs. During the years in the immediate future the Federal Government seems destined to invest hundreds of millions of dollars in school buildings as a part of its Public Works Program. Such fundamental studies as have been suggested as being needed, if constantly pursued, would effect large economies through better plans for locating and relating the functions of school buildings in properly reorganized school districts, to say nothing of the incalculable benefits to youth which would accrue from a very general improvement in all features of the school programs.

The Mystery of Tobacco

by James Frederick Rogers, M. D., Consultant in Hygiene

★ ★ ★

Parents and teachers anxious for the welfare of children are often perplexed over the "tobacco question." Even if they are users of the weed, or have no objection to its use by adults, there are few who do not regret to see the beginning of the habit in young people, and no one has yet suggested that it is of any benefit at this period of life.

So long as such a large percentage of adults of both sexes use tobacco with apparent or real satisfaction, and so long as children are imitative, about the best the teacher or parent can do by way of discouraging its use by them, besides setting a good example, is to cite examples of persons of eminence (including the whole list of notables before the great adventure of Columbus) who did very well without snuffing, chewing, or smoking tobacco. The example of the users may more than offset that of the abstainers, but the solicitous adviser will have done what he can in the matter and have eased his conscience.

Noted Men Nonsmokers

So seemingly universal is the use of tobacco in our country (or is it because the smoke and smell are so pervasive) that one is somewhat surprised at the number who do not use it.

Professor O'Shea in his study of *Tobacco and Efficiency* asked concerning the habits of noted persons. Of 156 college presidents, physicians, artists, Congressmen, writers, and others, who were questionnaired, about half were nonsmokers. A majority of financiers and writers of fiction smoked, but 55 percent of the Congressmen who responded were not smokers. Sixty percent of school superintendents set the example of smoking, as also a larger percentage of university presidents.

O'Shea did not divulge all of the names on his list, but he gives the following persons of note who in past or recent tobacco-using time did not have the habit: Robert Burton, William Penn, Jonathan Swift, George Fox, Samuel Johnson, Napoleon, Wellington, Cowper, Hugo, Balzac, Goethe, Heine, Southey, Swinburne, Lincoln, Greeley, Wendell Phillips. William Lloyd Garrison, Beecher, Whittier, John Burroughs, Theodore Roosevelt, Taft, Wilson, Lord Roberts, Robert Baden Powell.

History has repeated itself again, for 40 years ago an Englishman, A. Arthur Reade, sent out a similar questionnaire to representatives of literature, science, and art in Europe and America asking as to their use of both alcohol and tobacco. Of the 124 distinguished men who replied only 24 confessed to the use of tobacco, although only 30 were abstainers from alcohol in some form. Among the latter were: Mark Twain, Bayard Taylor, Taine, Darwin, Trollope and Edison; and among the nonusers of tobacco were: Cardinal Newman, Martineau, Tourguenieff, Lauder Brunton, Matthew Arnold, Gladstone, Lecky, Ruskin, Charles Reade, Lyman Abbot, Frederick Harrison, Thomas Hardy, and G. F. Watts.

Reasons Vary

It is a lesson in variety of human nature both physiological and psychological to read the testimony of O'Shea's correspondents as to the effects of tobacco. There are dogmatic assertions of all degrees pro and con, though it is to be noted that while a considerable percentage of those who use tobacco believe they would be as well off without it, no nonuser is so inconsistent. There are employers who find the best work done by smokers, and vice versa, which indicates how the employer's own habits may perhaps bias his observations.

The results of O'Shea's study whether as regards laboratory or opinionaire methods are inconclusive so far as adults are concerned. In both high schools and colleges the average marks for scholarship have been found to be somewhat lower among smokers, but we cannot infer from this that the use of tobacco was the cause of the inferior grades. Earp, Kennedy, and others have found that tobacco has a deleterious effect on physical skill and endurance, at least in a considerable percentage of users.

A recent summary of our knowledge of the effects of nicotine is that made by Professor Dixon of the University of Cambridge. In reading it we are strongly reminded of the general conclusions arrived at by students of the effects of alcohol. No two people are alike and the effects of both alcohol and tobacco vary accordingly. Alcohol is spoken of as a stimulant and also as a narcotic. Under the influence of tobacco Professor Dixon says the supersensitive become calm and lose their irritability and the dull and apathetic are stimulated. Just how a substance which is a narcotic can produce the feeling of stimulation seems a mystery but in the case of alcohol this is interpreted as due to a deception of the judgment of the user. Though it improves his opinion of himself it does not improve his work save where it may serve to free him from the trammels of self-consciousness.

If this is the explanation for its extensive use, tobacco may well serve as a milder and safer and more continuously useful substitute for alcohol. The overuse of tobacco, and its use in any quantity by certain persons, is harmful.

While tobacco may in some measure seem beneficial to a large percentage of adults who use it, it is still not proved that it is at any time beneficial for the child, and the time of its use may well be delayed until the days when the stress and strain of "civilization" fall heavily upon his consciousness. It is important also that he be informed that a large percentage of adults do not find the use of tobacco pleasurable or profitable and for a few it is always decidedly harmful.

Impairment of Life Duration

Whether or not users of tobacco get their money's worth in other ways, Professor Pearl, from his recent study of a group of nearly 7,000 men reached the conclusion that smoking "was associated definitely with an impairment of life duration, and the amount or degree of this impairment increased as the habitual amount of smoking increased."

The vagaries of human habits are inscrutable. Two centuries ago smoking was considered a "low, vulgar habit, suitable only for the scum of society." Today few would care to be seen using tobacco in the form of snuff as was the polite practice in colonial days. Does the human organism become sensitized to such alien substances, or weary of their use in certain forms, or are these changes of custom due to changes in social atmosphere? Will there be a decline in the smoking of tobacco in favor of some as yet undiscovered method of its use, or will there be the substitution of some new means of solace? Perhaps one of these days a voyager to Mars or some other distant sphere will return with a weed which will be even safer and more satisfying to its consumer and, let us hope, less detestable to those who do not use it.

★ ★ ★

New Sight-Saving Classes

The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness has reported that 44 new sight-saving classes were established during the year 1937–38, and that by the end of the year 558 such classes were in operation in the United States and Hawaii. In 1930 the society reported 352 sight-saving classes established. This means that from the year 1930 to 1938 there was an increase of 58 percent in the number of such classes. In the face of unfavorable economic conditions this would seem a most gratifying development.

Education in Estonia

by Peter Alexander Speek

★★★ Estonia is rather a solid national State because the Estonians, close kinsfolk of the Finns, make up nearly nine-tenths of the population of about 1,200,000. The area of the country is 18,353 square miles, just a little more than that fairly rectangular piece of land in the United States that is occupied by Vermont and New Hampshire but it maintains 22 more persons to the square mile than those States do though it is 14 degrees of latitude farther north than they are and its people are predominantly (70 percent) rural.

The largest racial minority group is the Russians (Slavs) most of whom live in villages and towns along the eastern boundary of the Republic and constitute a little over 8 percent of the population. There are small percentages of Germans and Swedes. The relations between the Estonians and the minorities are of a friendly, cooperative nature which is due, it is believed, to a large extent to national self-determination in the educational, or as they term it, "cultural" field. That means that the minorities have the right to organize and maintain their own schools, press, theater, etc. In the minority schools the children are taugnt through their mother tongue. The schools may be recognized and granted public funds just as are the schools of the Estonian majority.

Primary Education

The fundamental group of schools for public instruction and the training of the population is the primary schools with compulsory attendance. They are maintained by the State, which pays 80 percent of the teachers' salaries in towns and 90 percent in rural districts, and the local governments which pay the remaining part of the salaries and the general maintenance charges. Tuition is free. Books, clothing, and in some cases food, are provided for the children of poor parents by the local government from state and provincial grants for the purpose. These grants average annually about 300,000 crowns, or $81,000.

The syllabus includes the mother tongue, religion (optional), home-making mathematics, natural sciences and hygiene, geography, history and civics, foreign languages (only in the upper classes), drawing, manual training, singing, and physical culture. It covers a period of 6 school years or 12 semesters, from the time the child is 8 to graduation from the school, or to the completion of the sixteenth year of age. A school year in towns and cities is from September 1 to May 31, about 196 school days, and in rural districts from the beginning of October to the second half of May, 184 days.

The managing authorities of a school are the principal, and in larger places, the assistant principal; the teachers' council; and the board of school trustees. The council includes the entire teaching staff, school doctor, a delegate from the board of trustees, and a delegate of the parents. It handles all matters pertaining to education and instruction such as drawing up a detailed scheme of work at the beginning of the school year, arranging the school regulations, recording the progress of pupils and deciding on their promotion, in short, the internal affairs of the institution.

The board of trustees is in charge of the material well-being of the school. It consists of two to four representatives of the local government, depending on the size of the school; two to four representatives of the parents, the principal, school doctor, and delegates of persons contributing a subsidy amounting to near one-fifth of the maintenance expenses (excluding salaries and buildings) of the school. It controls the school movables and immovables as well as the school budget. Particularly it sees that the pupils attend regularly and imposes fines for inexcusable absence. This is handled so effectively that the provincial school inspectors reported in 1933–34 that only 1.9 percent of the children of school age failed to attend during the year, principally for reasons of poor health.

Secondary Education

Secondary schools form the second stage in this unified education system. Prior to 1934 the secondary curriculum was 5 years in duration (following the 6-year primary school) in which all pupils studied the same subjects for the first 2 years and beginning with the third could choose any one of six options to pursue for the subsequent 3 years. This was changed by two laws in 1934, which fixed the period of secondary instruction at 8 years, beginning when the child had completed 4 years of primary schooling, and divided into two successive schools, the first a 5-year secondary school in the narrow sense of the word; the second, a 3-year gymnasium. Provision was made for careful selection of those who would be admitted to the gymnasium, since the number of gymnasia was only about half that of the secondary schools.

As the reform went into effect, it created considerable opposition, especially in the rural sections and among the poorer people, who claimed that their children were not being given an equal opportunity to prepare for university studies. By 1937 it became necessary to change the situation and this was done by arranging for progymnasia and real schools, the former with a 5-year curriculum and taking the place of the 1934 "secondary school"; the latter, with a 3-year curriculum. They are parallel types and graduates of both will attain about the same level because the progymnasia admit young people who have completed the fourth year of the primary school while the real schools are for those who have been graduated from the full 6-year primary course. Progymnasia emphasize the humanistic studies; real schools, the technical sciences. Graduates of either may go on to higher vocational schools such as technicums, teachers seminaries, conservatories, schools of industrial and fine arts, etc., or by competitive examination enter the gymnasia.

The gymnasia form the third stage in the schooling of the young Estonians. In them practically the same subjects are studied as in the progymnasia and real schools, only in a deeper and broader way. From this point of view the gymnasium is a continuation school of the progymnasium and the real school. From another point of view it may be considered as the preparatory school for higher institutions of learning because its graduates may enter higher vocational schools, and either the University of Tartu or the Technical University of Tallinn, by competitive examination. Its curriculum lasts 3 years, which brings it about that an Estonian boy or girl may normally proceed through the primary school, progymnasium or real school, and gymnasium in 12 years and be ready for work on university levels.

The progymnasium, real school, and gymnasium are not really separate schools. They are often in the same buildings, under the same administration, and with the same teaching staff. The differences are in the classification of school years, the emphasis upon the groups of subjects of study and their extent, and finally in the right of entrance into the next higher stage. In fact they are one secondary school and are so counted.

This is the system of general education. In 1936–37 the primary schools to the number of

1,281 enrolled 53,750 girls and 55,784 boys and employed 4,143 teachers. It should be mentioned that most of these schools are coeducational. Only in some of the larger towns are there parallel classes for boys and for girls, and some private schools admit pupils of only one sex. In that same year there were 120 secondary schools with 8,173 boys and 8,442 girls in attendance taught by 2,001 teachers. Secondary schools are not so predominantly coeducational; many of those in large towns are separate for the sexes. There are approximately 11 primary and 1 secondary school for every 10,000 of the population or 10 inhabitants per primary and 68 per secondary pupil.

Vocational Education

From the inception of its regained independence Estonia gave serious attention to vocational education and after the economic depression came on much greater effort was applied to it. The schools then existing were reorganized and enlarged and new ones established in considerable numbers. In the Ministry of Public Instruction and Social Welfare, a special section for vocational education was created in 1934 and a series of steps were taken to better the training for vocations and spread it more widely throughout the country. The following table shows the accomplishment to and including 1937 in that direction.

Kind of school	Number of schools	Students		Teachers
		Total	Girls	
Technical and industrial	39	4,492	1,852	558
Agricultural	29	1,034	295	200
Commercial	14	1,408	858	231
Home economics	13	644	644	123
Fine arts	11	866	474	95
Various others	10	512	182	144
Total	116	8,956	4,305	1,351

The two main groups of these institutions are the lower with 1 to 2 years of instruction, and the higher with 2 to 4. As a rule the lower schools predominate in number. For instance, in 1937 there were 27 lower and 2 higher schools of agriculture, and 11 lower and 2 higher schools of home economics. Among the special vocational lower schools are a school for land amelioration including drainage and cultivation of swamps and bogs (2 years), one school each for nurses, foremen, and policemen, and dairy schools. Those of the higher grade include 2 teachers seminaries (4-year curriculum), The Institute of Industrial Arts, School of Fine Arts of "Pallas" in Tartu, the Conservatory of Music in Tallinn, the Music School of Tartu, and others.

Higher Education

Gustavus II Adolphus, King of Sweden from 1611 to 1632 and an extraordinary scholar as well as military strategist, while in camp at Nuremberg during his campaign in Germany, signed on June 30, 1632, the act creating the Academia Gustaviana at Tartu. His father, he, and later Swedish monarchs during the time that Estonia was part of their country showed much interest in the education and general social welfare of the Estonian people.

Open-air school of K. Pats. The pupils are grading and seeding the lawn, Estonia.

Estonian school boys exercising in physical culture training.

The Academia Gustaviana was the beginning of what is now the University of Tartu with a history so interesting that it is worthy a short sketch. Gustavus modelled the new academia after the University of Upsala, with the same rights, statutes, and regulations and endowed it liberally. For some years it functioned well, then ran into difficulties because Queen Christina withdrew from it the sources of most of its revenues. In 1656, when the Russians took Tartu, the faculty went to Tallinn and carried on the work there until 1665. Lack of resources then kept it closed until 1690 when Charles XI reopened it as the Academia Gustaviana Carolina. In 1699 because of war it was moved from Tartu to Pärnu but not long afterward again closed its doors and they were not reopened for 92 years, or until Czar Alexander I of Russia reestablished it in 1802. From 1802 to 1889 it carried on as a local university essentially German in character with German as the language of instruction and the faculty mostly Germans.

Exhibition of the work of the pupils of the School of Industrial Arts in Tallinn, Estonia.

On November 20, 1889, Czar Alexander III, in pursuance of his Pan-Russian policy, issued an order that the language medium should be Russian and 3 years later when the city of Tartu was forced to change its name to Yuryev, it became the University of Yuryev, and as a thoroughly Russian institution made good progress until 1915. In that year, when the Germans attacked the Riga-Dünaburg front, the university proceeded to move its effects. Much of its property was sent to Nijni-Novgorod and Perm. It continued to work rather feebly until 1918 when the Germans occupied Estonia and in effect closed it. By the end of August of that year most of the professors were at Veronezh where the university's goods had been reassembled from different places in Russia. Work began there, but on September 25, 1918, the Germans reopened the university at Tartu in the presence of the Minister of Public Instruction of Prussia, and immediately began giving instruction to the thousand or more students that came. This German institution continued until in 1918, when the German army of occupation withdrew, and it was turned over to the Provisional Government of Estonia.

During all the years from 1632 to 1918 the university had not been an Estonian institution as Gustavus II Adolphus had intended; it was German or Russian. Few Estonians attended and rarely was an Estonian a member of the faculty. The Estonian language was accorded about the same recognition as a foreign tongue; no effort was made to develop it and no special attention was paid to Estonian history and literature. Independent Estonia could not be satisfied with such an arrangement. It must have a national university that would express Estonian education in its highest terms. The situation was studied carefully for nearly a year and in 1919, courses were begun in an institution that was to be and is a truly Estonian university. As such it has now had a life of nearly two decades. By 1936 it was maintaining departments of theology, law, economics, medicine and pharmacy, philosophy, mathematics and natural sciences, veterinary science, agriculture, forestry, and technical sciences with a total of 3,052 students of whom 985 were women.

I have outlined this history of the university in the hope that my readers in the United States may understand better the difficulties that the Estonians have faced in trying to preserve their language and ideals and what it meant to them to have the right to establish and maintain their own center of higher learning. Moreover what was true of the university in the three centuries of its existence is applicable in great measure also to the primary and secondary schools.

The Institute of Technology at Tallinn is the higher institution for engineering and allied sciences. Such work was begun in 1918 by the Higher Technical School at Tallinn, a private organization, that was taken over by the State in 1920. Until 1933 it was much like the German "technikums." Then it was closed and a faculty of engineering opened in the University of Tartu. By decree of June 25, 1936, the institute was established as an independent university of technology, and all of the equipment of both the former college and the temporary faculty of engineering was transferred to it. It has 3 divisions; construction, chemical, and mechanical engineering. The regular curricula are 4 years in duration. Facilities are also provided for advanced study and research, leading to the award of the degree of doctor of engineering.

An Estonian Academy of Sciences was founded in 1938. Its purpose is to coordinate the activities of the various scientific associations formerly grouped around the University of Tartu, to promote the study of science in general, and scientific study of the Estonian people in particular.

Education of Teachers

Teachers for the primary schools during the years 1931–37 were prepared in two pedagogiums, one at Tallinn, the other at Tartu. The curriculum was 2 years and graduates of the gymnasia were admitted to it. In 1937 these were replaced by two teachers seminaries with 4-year curricula, the first 3 years to be general training, and the last one especially devoted to pedagogy and methods of teaching. Students may take up work in the seminaries after they have completed the progymnasium or the real school. Teachers for the progymnasia, real schools, and gymnasia are educated in the University of Tartu.

General Developments

In large measure the changes and developments that have come in Estonian education in the past 10 to 15 years have been much like those in several other countries. They have taken the direction of limiting the number and more carefully selecting the students that are expected to complete university training, providing more kinds of education through more vocational schools with curricula of greater variety, allocating to the national treasury larger percentages of the financial support of education, giving to the national government closer control of the social agencies of the country, and including in the educational process not only young people but the adult population as well.

School girls on excursion in national costumes.

Post-school training is constantly gaining in favor and is carried on in people's universities, extension courses, free libraries, and other agencies now being so much used for that purpose. To celebrate the four hundredth anniversary of the printing of the first Estonian book, in 1535, the year 1935–36 was designated as "Book Year" when the value of reading and the use of books were stressed, popular libraries were given special attention, and stocks of books were greatly increased.

Travel Survey

The Minneapolis Board of Education is having a city-wide survey made of the distance children travel to school. The specific uses to which the Board plans to apply the survey result, as reported in the *Minneapolis School Bulletin*, are: Determination of district boundaries for construction of new buildings, and possible reassignment of pupils to reduce distance to schools; furtherance of traffic safety for pupils by routing of children away from heavily traveled streets, as far as possible; study of possible economies through transportation of pupils to some schools in buses to obviate the necessity of new buildings in lightly populated areas; determination of general direction of school population movements as shown by comparison of survey results with information obtained by the board in previous years.

State Aid for Pupil Transportation

by Timon Covert, Specialist in School Finance

★★★ Pupil transportation service provides the most practical and frequently the most economical means of furnishing satisfactory educational facilities for many children. Because of this fact and since in the final analysis the making of plans for the successful operation of the public schools is a responsibility of the State government, a number of States provide funds for the definite purpose of assisting local school districts with the expense of transporting their children to school. Other States provide funds for general current expenses of the schools, and these expenses of course frequently include transportation. When provision is specifically made for the use of State funds for pupil transportation service, however, it is from the point of view of the State chiefly for one or both of two purposes, namely, to encourage localities to consolidate their small schools and to equalize school costs.

The electors and officials of local school districts frequently hesitate to give up their small weak schools and unite in establishing stronger and probably better ones because of the necessary additional costs for transportation which would result. If there are State funds for meeting part or all of the additional expenses, however, a higher local tax rate may not be necessary and the electors probably will be more likely to decide favorably upon the consolidation and school improvement program. And if transportation service is necessary for children in some but not in all localities funds may be provided by the State for this item of expense where it is necessary in order to distribute such expense equably throughout the State. Accordingly, State aid for pupil transportation is provided in some instances to promote the establishment of better school facilities and in other instances to equalize school costs throughout the State.

Law Specifies

Usually when provision is made for State aid for pupil transportation the law specifies or authorizes certain officials to specify how such funds may be used. While there is considerable variation in these specifications among the States which provide funds for pupil transportation, all indicate attempts on the part of the States to improve educational facilities.

The amount of State aid which is provided especially for pupil transportation for a given year is, of course, either stated in the law or can be computed in accordance with the terms of the law. This is not true of State funds provided indirectly for pupil transportation as a part of the general current expenses. From available information, it appears that at least 16 States provide funds especially for public-school transportation service. The accompanying tabulation shows the amounts of such funds in these 16 States for the year 1937–38. The principal legal provisions sur-

(Concluded on page 212)

State Aid for Pupil Transportation in 16 States, 1937–38

State	Transportation for which aid is provided	Minimum distance for which State funds are provided	Payments	Amount in 1937–38
1	2	3	4	5
Connecticut	To a high school in an adjoining town, when no local high school is maintained.	Not stated.	One-half cost not to exceed $35 per pupil annually.	$108,809.00
Delaware	To any school	1 mile	Total cost, but no more than 6.3 percent of the State appropriation for schools.	302,301.35
Florida	do	2 miles [1]	Not to exceed 12.5 percent of State salary fund in any county without special permission from the State board of education.	1,033,087.43
Maine [2]	do		Total for transporting children living on unorganized territory and for children elsewhere of temporary residents living 2 miles or more from school.	10,775.21
Massachusetts	(a) To a high school in an adjoining town, from 1 (of less than 500 families) that does not maintain a high school.	(a) Not stated.	(a) One-half, three-fourths, or the total cost (depending upon the local school tax rate, distance pupil travels, and approval of State department of education) not to exceed 40 cents per pupil per day; 80 cents if distance is above 3 miles.	[3]
	(b) To schools on mainland for children residing on Islands.	(b) Not stated.	(b) Total cost not to exceed $3.50 per pupil per week.	
Michigan	To schools of township and rural agricultural school districts and for that provided by districts voting to close one or more grades.	Distance approved by State superintendent of public instruction.	Based on actual cost but not to exceed $40 per pupil per year.	708,458.97
Minnesota	(a) To schools in consolidated districts.	(a) 2 miles	(a) Maximum of $3,600 per school and 7.2 cents per child per day for each mile traveled one way.	[3]
	(b) To any school	(b) Not stated.	(b) For crippled children maximum of 70 cents per pupil per day.	
Missouri	To any public school	2 miles	15 cents per day per pupil transported	1,234,000.00
New Jersey	To any school approved by county superintendent of schools.	Not stated	75 percent of approved cost	1,648,508.00
New York	To high school in another district, to schools in union free and consolidated or central districts.	do	One-half of approved cost	2,148,105.98
North Carolina	To any school	1 mile	Total approved operating costs	2,443,168.77
Pennsylvania [4]	To school in home or adjoining district.	1½ miles	75, 60, or 50 percent of approved cost depending upon true valuation per teacher of the district, maximum amount to any district $4,000 or $3,000 depending upon valuation and not to exceed $1 per day per pupil; transportation vehicle depreciation allowance not to exceed $100 per vehicle per year; and $200 per year for each closed school since 1911.	1,864,556.73
South Carolina	Transportation over approved official routes.	Not stated	Rate per pupil mile determined by State officials over routes approved by State school officials.	234,000.00
Texas	(a) To nearest convenient accredited high school from elementary school district or districts.	(a) Not stated.	(a) Cost not to exceed $2 per month per pupil.	1,731,599.00
	(b) To any elementary school	(b) Not stated.	(b) Not more than $1 per month per pupil.	
	(c) To school in districts containing 100 square miles or more of territory.	(c) Not stated.	(c) $2 per pupil per month.	
Wisconsin	To school in another district from one with closed schools and to schools in consolidated and union high school districts.	2, 2½, or 4 miles, depending upon type of district.	10 cents per day per child transported; $1 per day for board in lieu of transportation for pupil 2 miles from school; $100 additional to a district for transporting its pupils to another district; but in no case to exceed actual cost of transportation.	240,000.00
Wyoming	To any school for each transportation vehicle which transports at least eight pupils a minimum distance.	Average of 8 miles to and from school.	50 percent not to exceed $2,000,000 annually of the moneys received from the "Government royalty funds" is distributed to the counties on basis of number of teachers and school bus drivers employed.	37,540.00

[1] Regulation of State board of education, but not restricted by minimum distance.
[2] Also State aid for foundation program including transportation of pupils.
[3] Not reported.
[4] Revised laws will increase State's share somewhat beginning July 1, 1939.

EDUCATORS' BULLETIN BOARD

New Books and Pamphlets

Motion Pictures in Education

Teaching with Motion Pictures; a guide to sources of information and materials, by Mary E. Townes. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. 25 p. 25 cents.

Contents: Pt. I, The educational film as a teaching aid; Pt. II, The theatrical film as an educational force; Pt. III, Making motion pictures in the school.

Motion Pictures and Radio; modern techniques for education, by Elizabeth Laine. New York, The Regents' Inquiry, the McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. 165 p. $1.75.

Presents the findings of a special study of the use of the motion picture and the radio in the schools, made for the Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York.

Safety Education

Safety Education thru Schools. Washington, D. C., published by the Research Division of the National Education Association, 1938. p. 239–298. 25 cents, single copy. (Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, vol. xvi, No. 5.)

Discusses the teaching of safety and lists organizations in the field of safety, local and State courses of study, and motion pictures which should be of special benefit to curriculum committees.

The Challenge to Democracy

"Calling America," a special number of Survey Graphic on the Challenge to Democracy. Special editor, Raymond Gram Swing. February 1939. illus. 50 cents.

Articles on the European situation and its implications for America, contributed by well-known foreign correspondents, columnists, religious writers, educators, etc. Topics discussed include: Consequences of modern despotism abroad: Minorities overseas; The Refugees—over there; Tests of democracy at home; The Refugees—over here; Democracy in a changing America; Facets of our new world; What we can do about the challenge reaching here: a symposium.

Classroom Practices

Instructional Practices in Elementary Schools; selected classroom practices reported by teachers in Michigan schools. Published by Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction. Lansing, Mich., 1938. 178 p. (Michigan. Department of Public Instruction. Bulletin no. 306.)

This bulletin planned primarily for smaller schools offers definite examples of progressive teaching in the elementary school. "It is a digest of teaching practices of recognized merit, selected, not because of their newness, but because their use has not yet become general."

Adult Education

Community Planning in Adult Education; a practical handbook for the administrator of classes for adults. Prepared by the staff of the Department of Adult Education, School of Education, New York University. New York, N. Y., Published by Service Bureau for Adult Education, Division of General Education, New York University, 1938. 66 p. 50 cents.

Concrete and helpful information for the administrator of adult education programs.

For Junior High Schools

Leisure Reading for Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine, Graded and Classified. Prepared for the National Council of Teachers of English by its Committee on Recreational Reading, Stella S. Center and Max J. Herzberg, co-chairmen. Chicago, Ill., National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West Sixty-Eighth St., 1938. 147 p. illus. 20 cents, single copy.

New classifications include The Animal Kingdom, Discovery and Exploration, Etiquette, Games and Sports, Handicrafts, Hobbies, and Photography. Revised edition, with rewritten annotations.

Secondary School Standards

Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C., announces that the following publications are available:

How to Evaluate a Secondary School. 157 p. 90 cents.

Evaluative Criteria. Bound form. 152 p. 60 cents.

Evaluative Criteria. Separate pamphlets, 4 to 24 p. each. 5 cents.

Educational Temperatures. 56 p. 50 cents.

Educational Temperatures. Wall charts. $1.50 per set. (Sets of 19 wall charts, 17 by 22 inches showing all thermometers. Suitable for display purposes.)

Educational Temperatures for Five Representative Schools. 41 p. 20 cents.

SUSAN O. FUTTERER

★

Recent Theses

A list of the most recently received doctors' and masters' theses in education, which may be borrowed from the Library of the Office of Education on interlibrary loan.

BASSETT, OCTAVIA R. Health and culture in the CCC camps. Master's, 1938. George Washington University. 65 p. ms.

BINFORD, GEORGE H. A study of discipline in the Negro schools of Buckingham County, Virginia. Master's, 1938. Hampton Institute. 60 p. ms.

BUNDY, LEON F. Emphasis on religion in courses of study: the relative space given to religion in courses of study in the field of the social studies in grades 7 to 12, inclusive. Master's, 1938. Syracuse University. 37 p. ms.

COLLINS, STANLEY N. An investigation to determine what principles of commercial law are used most frequently by 100 business workers. Master's, 1938. George Washington University. 63 p. ms.

COOPER, RUSSELL S. Educational services for out-of-school Negro youth in North Carolina. Master's, 1938. Hampton Institute. 41 p. ms.

DILLINGHAM, HOWARD I. Relationship of certain factors of social adjustment to academic success. Doctor's, 1938. Syracuse University. 87 p. ms.

DRAKE, BEULAH J. Survey of the crippled children of the District of Columbia and existing facilities for their care and education. Master's, 1938. George Washington University. 86 p. ms.

EBERLE, ALMA M. Controlled experiment to determine the value of technical analysis in music appreciation. Master's, 1938. Pennsylvania State College. 26 p. ms.

GILES, DOROTHY E. *and* LILLIS, C. F. The reliability and validity of the Klar scale for evaluating children's drawings. Master's, 1938. Pennsylvania State College. 53 p. ms.

HAMILTON, HERBERT H. Study of truancy in the junior high schools of Muncie, Ind. Master's, 1934. Ball State Teachers College. 56 p.

HOLT, ANDREW D. The struggle for a state system of public schools in Tennessee, 1900-36. Doctor's, 1937. Teachers College, Columbia University.

JOHNSON, MARION E. A study of the social problems and vocational needs of the youth of Pottsville, and the program for meeting the needs. Master's, 1938. Pennsylvania State College. 40 p. ms.

LATSHAW, MARY LEWERS. Interchange of teachers. Master's, 1938. George Washington University. 122 p. ms.

LECRON, WILBUR R. A plan for allocating funds to state teachers colleges in Pennsylvania. Doctor's, 1938. Pennsylvania State College. 121 p. ms.

LOESSIN, ARTHUR L. Educational survey of young people between the ages of 12 and 20, inclusive, not in school attendance, Brown county, South Dakota. Master's, 1938. University of North Dakota. 123 p. ms.

LOMBARDI, MARYELLEN M. The inter-trait rating technique. Doctor's, 1937. Teachers College, Columbia University. 99 p.

MADEIRA, SHELDON. Some current practices in high school play production in Pennsylvania. Master's, 1938. Pennsylvania State College. 47 p. ms.

MOSS, LOUIS Q. Project method applied to curriculum construction in the apprentice schools of United States Navy yards. Doctor's, 1938. Temple University. 157 p.

PEARSON, GAYNOR. The United States Marine Corps institute. Master's, 1938. George Washington University. 85 p. ms.

PRICE, RALPH G. A report of vocational guidance in rural high schools. Master's, 1937. Teachers College, Columbia University. 57 p. ms.

SMITH, CLARENCE E. Socially creative leadership as illustrated by studies in theory and practice in the administration of a rural supervisory district. Doctor's, 1938. University of Buffalo. 292 p. ms.

STRICKLAND, RUTH G. Study of the possibilities of graphs as a means of instruction in the first four grades of the elementary school. Doctor's, 1937. Teachers College, Columbia University. 172 p.

VEIT, MATHILDE. The Oregon state board of higher curricula: a sequence of its actions relating to the University of Oregon and the Oregon Agricultural College. Master's, 1929. University of Oregon. 74 p. ms.

WALLACE, MIRA. A study of the hard-of-hearing child with some provisions for meeting his needs in the school program. Master's, 1938. Boston University. 67 p. ms.

YOUNG, ALFRED R. Appraisal of 30 rural schools of Atchison county, Kansas. Master's, 1938. University of Kansas. 82 p. ms.

RUTH A. GRAY

Governor's Power of Removal

by John H. McNeely, Specialist in Higher Education

★★★ In the organization of State universities and colleges throughout the country it has been a common policy among the States to designate boards of trustees or regents to govern them.

The boards were established as more or less separate entities within the governmental structure, the purpose being to make them independent as far as possible of the authority and influence of the regularly constituted executive officers of the State government. The chief officer of the State government is the governor. A question of vital interest in this connection is whether the governor is vested with the power to select or remove the members of these boards.

A number of studies have been conducted into the methods of selecting the board members, in which it has been found that they are appointed by the governor with or without the consent of the senate in most of the States. In a few States the board members of all or some of the institutions are selected by popular election or by joint ballot of the two houses of the legislature. In the case of certain individual institutions, one or two members are frequently chosen by the alumni. Practically no studies on an extensive scale, however, have been made of the power vested in the governor to remove members of the boards during their regular term of office. It is proposed in this article to review the extent to which the legal provisions of each of the 48 States confer such power on the governor.

Legal Provisions

An examination of the legal provisions of the several States shows that the governor derives his removal power either from the State constitution or statutes enacted by the State legislature. In some of the States the constitution or statutes vesting this power in the governor is general in scope and applies to all State officers including the members of the governing boards of State universities and colleges. In other States the power is contained in specific statutes applicable to the governing boards of the individual institutions.

The governor's power to remove board members may be classified into two types: (1) Unconditional removal power and (2) conditional removal power. Where the governor possesses unconditional removal power he is at liberty to remove a board member without cause and at his own pleasure, will, or discretion. In case he possesses conditional removal power, he may remove a member only for cause, that is, conditional on the member having given the governor cause for his removal. The legal provisions fixing cause for removal vary from State to State, but commonly involve malfeasance, misconduct in office, neglect of duty, or incompetency.

Furthermore, where the governor has been vested with conditional removal power or the right to remove board members for cause, he may or may not be subject to certain limitations in exercising the power. For instance, the laws of some States confer power on the governor to remove a board member for cause without presenting charges and giving him an opportunity for a hearing. In others the governor must first present the member with the charges and permit him an opportunity for a hearing. A significant point in this connection is that even after the member has been allowed to present evidence in refutation of the charges at a hearing, the governor is the sole judge as to whether his charges justify the member's removal. In still other States the governor may remove a member for cause only with the consent of the senate, that is, the removal power is vested jointly in the governor and the senate.

Power in 34 States

Of the 48 States, it is found that the governor possesses the power to remove members of one or more governing boards unconditionally or conditionally, that is, without cause or for cause, in 34 States. This means that in 14 States, or approximately 30 percent, the governor has no authority whatever to remove members of any governing boards of State universities and colleges. These States are:

Alabama	Kansas	New Jersey
Arizona	Minnesota	New York
California	Mississippi	Pennsylvania
Delaware	Montana	Tennessee
Georgia[1]	Nevada	

In the 34 States in which the governor has been vested with removal power, either unconditional or conditional, variations exist as to the application of the power to boards governing institutions of different types. The removal power in many States applies alike to all the governing boards of institutions within the State. There are some States, however, in which the removal power applies to boards governing institutions of certain types while those governing institutions of other types are not subject to removal by the governor. In other States the governor's removal power is restricted to the governing board of one particular institution.

Of special interest are the States in which the governor possesses unconditional removal power, or the right to remove board members at his pleasure, will, or discretion. There are eight such States, the list including:

Indiana[2]	New Mexico	Rhode Island
Kentucky	North Carolina	Vermont
Missouri	Oklahoma	

The governor's unconditional removal power in each of these States is applicable to the governing boards of all the institutions in the State with three exceptions. In North Carolina the Governor possesses this power over the boards governing one of the State teachers colleges, all the State Negro colleges or normal schools, and the State Indian normal schools. Members of the boards governing the State university and the three other State teachers colleges in North Carolina are not subject to removal by the Governor.

Similarly, in Oklahoma unconditional removal power is vested in the Governor only over the boards governing the State's four junior colleges. As will be shown later, he possesses conditional removal power over the governing boards of the other institutions in Oklahoma, such as the State university or State agricultural and mechanic arts colleges. In Vermont the Governor's unconditional removal power applies to the single board governing the three State normal schools, but not to the governing board of the State university.

The governor in the remaining 26 States is empowered to remove board members of one or more institutions conditionally or for cause. In the following States he may exercise this power without presenting charges and giving the board members an opportunity for a hearing:

Arkansas	Michigan	Texas
Colorado	Nebraska	Utah
Idaho	Ohio	Washington
Illinois	Oklahoma	West Virginia
Louisiana	South Dakota	Wisconsin
Maryland		

Seven States Excepted

This removal power is applicable to the governing board of each of the State institutions in all except seven of these States. In Arkansas the Governor's removal power applies only to certain State agricultural and mechanical colleges. He has no power to remove members of the governing boards of the State university, teachers colleges or

[1] The governor has legal power to remove 1 of the 16 members of the single board governing all institutions in Georgia. This particular member serves for a 2-year term and is appointed by the governor apparently as his special representative on the board.

[2] A difference of opinion exists as to whether the statute conferring broad powers of removing State officers and employees on the governor of Indiana is applicable to the members of the governing boards of the two State universities and two State teachers colleges.

Negro college. In Illinois only the members of the single board governing the State teachers colleges are subject to removal by the Governor, no removal power being vested in him over the State university's governing board. On the other hand, the board members governing the State university in Louisiana may be removed for cause by the Governor while no legal power is possessed by the Governor to remove members composing the single board governing all the other State institutions.

A slightly different situation exists in Maryland. The Governor in that State may remove members of the governing board of the State university for cause without presenting charges and giving them an opportunity for a hearing. At the same time, he is limited in exercising this power over the members of the single board governing the State teachers colleges and normal schools. In Michigan, the Governor's removal power is applicable only to board members of the State's school of mines. He has no removal power over members of the boards governing the State university, the State agricultural and mechanic arts college, and the State teachers colleges. In Nebraska, the Governor may remove only the members of the single board governing all the State teachers colleges, but does not possess removal power over the governing board of the State university. The governing boards of two State universities in Ohio are subject to the Governor's removal for cause without presenting charges or giving opportunity for a hearing. These two institutions are Bowling Green State University and the Kent State University. In removing the members of the governing boards of the other three universities, the Governor is subject to certain limitations.

In contrast with the States in which the governor may remove board members without presenting charges and giving an opportunity for a hearing are those in which he is required to present charges and give the members an opportunity for a hearing. The latter situation is found in the following States:

Connecticut	Oregon
Maryland	South Carolina [3]
New Hampshire	Wyoming
North Dakota	

In all except two of these States the governor's removal power applies to the boards governing the institutions of different types within the State. The exceptions are Maryland and New Hampshire. In both of them the Governor's power is applicable only to the single boards governing the State teachers colleges. As already indicated, he may remove the board members of the State university in Maryland without presenting charges and giving an opportunity for a hearing. In the case of the State university in New Hampshire, no removal power whatever has been conferred on the Governor over its board members.

Consent of Senate

One of the most restrictive limitations placed on the governor's removal of board members for cause is that requiring him to obtain the consent of the senate. Among the States in which the governor's removal power is so limited are the following:

Florida [4]	Maine [5]	Ohio
Iowa	Massachusetts [5]	Virginia

This limitation applies to the removal by the governor of the board members governing all the institutions in each of the States except Ohio. In that State it is applicable to the governing boards of three of the State universities. These institutions are the Ohio State University, Ohio University, and Miami University; the other State university boards being subject to removal by the governor for cause without presenting charges and giving an opportunity for a hearing, as already pointed out.

Summarizing

In summary, it has been shown that the governor does not possess removal power over governing boards of State universities and colleges in 14 States. On the other hand he has been vested with the legal right to remove the members of boards governing one or more institutions either unconditionally or conditionally, that is, without or with cause, in 34 States. Of striking significance is the fact that no governor has taken advantage of his power and has actually removed any board members of State universities and colleges within recent years. The most recent occasion when a governor exercised his removal power over board members occurred in the State of Washington in 1928. In this instance, the Governor removed two members of the board governing the State university in Washington for cause. A possible explanation is that the members of these boards for the most part represent a high type of citizenship and there is no reasonable cause for their removal.

★

Kindergarten Enrollment

The Thirty-Third Annual Report (1937) of the New York State Department of Education lists 178 villages and 52 cities in that State which were maintaining kindergartens. The total kindergarten enrollment in the villages was 12,933, and in the cities 78,727.

[3] Members of the governing boards before the governors' removal becomes effective have the right to appeal to the circuit court.

[4] If senate is not in session the governor may suspend the board members until the next session when the senate must consent to the removal or the members remain in office.

[5] Removal must be with the consent of the governor's council instead of the senate.

State Aid for Pupil Transportation

(Concluded from page 209)

rounding the use of the funds in each case are also indicated. Most States provide funds for transporting atypical children to special State and/or local schools; neither these, with a few exceptions, nor State funds for current school expenses, some of which may be used for pupil transportation, are included in the tabulation.

Transportation expense for which State funds are made.—The funds may be used in Delaware, Florida, Maine, Missouri, New Jersey, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Wyoming for the expense of transporting pupils to any public school, providing, in most cases, that the service has been approved by State authorities; in Connecticut, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Wisconsin, their use is limited to the expense of transporting pupils to certain schools. As an example of such limitation, in Connecticut the State shares in the expense of transporting pupils to a high school located in a town adjoining that in which the pupil resides when no high school is maintained in his town.

Minimum distance for which State funds are allowed.—Two of the sixteen States specify that the funds may be used in transporting pupils a minimum distance of 1 mile; one specifies 1½ miles; two specify 2 miles, while three others specify the same minimum to certain schools, but a different or no minimum to others; one requires that the average bus route be not less than 8 miles; and the remaining seven either do not fix the minimum distance or authorize State officials to approve it.

Payments.—Bases for the payments of the State funds are as follows: In Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and South Carolina, operating costs; in Minnesota, Missouri, and Wisconsin, definite amounts are granted; in Pennsylvania and Texas both of the preceding bases are used; in Wyoming, number of pupil transportation vehicles used; while in Florida the basis is not stated in the law.

Eight States pay, usually within prescribed limits and according to graduated rates, 50 percent or more of the transportation costs. In Delaware, where practically all school costs are assumed by the State, the appropriation act specifies a definite part of the funds for pupil transportation. In a number of instances, the State funds cannot be used until the service has been approved by designated State officials. An annual allowance of $200 for each school closed since 1911 is made in Pennsylvania and a bonus of $100 per district is made in Wisconsin when the district closes its schools and transports its pupils to another district.

Guidance in CCC Camps

by Howard W. Oxley, Director, CCC Camp Education

★★★ From the very beginning of the CCC educational program, guidance has been considered the major educational activity—the dynamo generating motive power for all of the other activities. The real meaning of the term, however, has broadened and deepened during the past 5 years. As it is now understood in the corps, guidance includes all those devices and activities employed by the supervisory personnel in adjusting members to camp life and preparing them for employment and citizenship upon their discharge from camp.

Another development is the fact that all CCC agencies and most CCC officials now recognize guidance to be one of their paramount responsibilities. The educational reports of the Army show that during the past fiscal year, 1,462,509 guidance interviews were held in the camps by officers, members of the using services (Forestry Service, Soil Conservation Service, National and State Park Service, etc.), and educational advisers. The training reports of the Forest Service show that during 3 months (April to June 1938), 34,227 interviews were held by the personnel of that agency alone. Similar activities were carried on by the personnel of the other using services.

This twofold development of the guidance program—the change in the meaning of the concept and the acceptance of responsibility by every CCC agency has developed naturally out of the camp situation.

New Influences

When an enrollee joins the corps he is subjected to a score of new influences. His education and development are not confined to a classroom. Work, play, study, the routine and discipline of camp life, association with his fellows, and contacts with the supervisory personnel—all of these aid in his development. The whole of camp life, the 24 hours of the camp day, are in the best sense of the word, educational. He must be guided, however, in order to secure the maximum benefits from these experiences.

The guidance procedure actually begins with the selection of the men. Under the supervision of the United States Department of Labor, State welfare and relief agencies select those men who are considered to be most in need and best qualified for the work and educational opportunities of the corps. About 2 million young men have been selected on this basis during the past 6 years.

Their need for guidance is apparent from a description of an enrollee, typical of the 2 million. He is a young man, barely 20 years of age, who left school when he was in the eighth grade. His family was either on relief or eligible for it. He has had little or no work experience and has been bewildered and disheartened by his futile efforts to secure a job. He has had no vocational training nor has he received any vocational guidance. In most cases he is underweight and undernourished. Because of his unfortunate experiences, he may have lost faith and confidence in himself and others, and as a consequence, he may be apathetic and listless, or perhaps embittered and antisocial in his attitudes. A large number of the men leaving their families for the first time, are homesick and skeptical of the opportunities awaiting them in their new environment. There are, of course, numerous exceptions to this general picture but by and large, it fits the great majority of the men as they first enter the camps.

Individual guidance in the CCC camp.

After their selection, the men are sent forward to a central point to be accepted and enrolled by representatives of the Army. Again, the guidance process enters into the picture for only those individuals are accepted who demonstrate their physical and mental ability to profit from the experience in the corps. After enrollment, the men are assigned to a camp.

Procedure Differs

The orientation procedure used for inducting new men into the CCC differs in various sections of the country. In some camps there is a conditioning period of a week or so, during which talks are made by officials on camp life and regulations, different phases of the work project, safety precautions and the educational program. The men are taken on a tour of the camp and work projects to aid them in acquiring an intelligent understanding of the entire work of the camp. Insofar as possible, the new men are assigned to the job and the crew which they prefer.

In other camps, the supervisory personnel and outstanding enrollees are designated as sponsors or "buddies" of the new members to introduce them to the various activities of camp life; to inculcate in them respect for the ideals and rules of the camp; and to help them in getting acquainted with the other men.

In most companies, the commanding officer writes a letter to the parents of each new man, giving a brief description of camp life and the opportunities for learning and advancement. They urge the parents to write cheerful letters to their sons stressing the fact that a cheerful letter from home does much to prevent homesickness and improve morale.

These plans, modified or combined in a number of ways, are used to assist the new member over the difficult humps of the first month.

The establishment of a workable guidance procedure is essential to a sound camp educational program. Camps differ greatly in the extent and quality of their guidance work. The ideal guidance process would include the orientation program already described, a systematic and thorough initial interview, a minimum testing program, a follow-up personal counseling program, and a referral or placement system. Such a procedure is carried on in many camps at the present time and it is the ideal toward which all camps are working.

Initial Interview

The initial interview is usually conducted by the educational adviser to ascertain, insofar as that is possible, the interests and needs of each individual. Tests may be administered to determine educational achievements and special aptitudes. A cumulative record card is provided to record data regarding the background of the enrollee. The card likewise serves for recording information as to the interest and progress of the enrollee while in camp.

The best type of follow-up counseling program includes as agents of its administration not only the camp adviser but also all supervisory personnel in the camp and certain key enrollees. Many camps have adopted the "sponsor" plan, already described in relation to orientation, whereby each officer, member of the using service, camp adviser, or an enrollee assumes responsibility for the guidance of certain groups of enrollees. The adviser, acting as coordinator, interprets the records of the interviews and translates the needs of the

(Concluded on page 216)

New Government Aids FOR TEACHERS

by MARGARET F. RYAN

FREE PUBLICATIONS: Order free publications and other free aids listed from agencies issuing them

COST PUBLICATIONS: Request only cost publications from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. enclosing remittance (check or money order) at time of ordering

● That modern electrical equipment may be used to good advantage in home economics and manual training classes in rural schools is demonstrated in REA Film Strip No. 5, *The New Rural School*, a series of pictures taken in consolidated schools by the Rural Electrification Administration.

Orders for the film strips should be sent direct to the L. E. Davidson Picture Service, 438 Delaware Avenue, Buffalo, N. Y. The price including postage is 55 cents. Prepared lectures accompany each film.

Film strip projection machines may sometimes be borrowed from county agents and others, or may be rented from commercial companies dealing with such equipment.

● A *Digest of Laws Affecting Organized Camping.*—Laws dealing with sanitation, health, child welfare, child labor, social security, workmen's compensation, civil liberties, sales tax, foodstuffs, Sunday closing, lodging houses, innkeepers, motor vehicles, navigation, State parks, forests, and public lands—is available free from the National Park Service, Washington, D. C.

● The Superintendent of Documents has revised the following price lists of Government publications: Laws—Regulations, decisions of courts, opinions of attorney general, No. 10; Finance—Banking, budget, accounting, loans, No. 28; Tariff and taxation, No. 37; Federal specifications—Federal standard stock catalog, No. 75. Free.

● In 1937 exports from the United States to Brazil—the largest political division of South America—almost doubled. *Trading Under the Laws of Brazil*, Trade Promotion Series No. 183, provides a practical handbook for the exporter who is seeking a practical exposition of those laws with which he will come in daily contact—the laws of commerce. (20 cents.)

● Groups of farmers planning to form a cooperative association should have technical advice from those experienced in the services to be rendered and in the organization and operation of cooperatives. Various publications designed to assist groups of producers interested in forming a cooperative may be obtained on request from the Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C.

● Two main functions of the Bureau of Fisheries in Alaska are the conservation of the fisheries and the protection and management of the fur-seal herd. *Alaska Fishery and Fur-Seal Industries in 1937* contains data on how these duties are performed. Send 15 cents to the Superintendent of Documents for a copy of Bureau of Fisheries Administrative Report No. 51.

Courtesy Rural Electrification Administration.

Modern electrical equipment in a rural school.

● In order to obtain data on the food-consumption habits and the nutritive value of diets of healthy young children, quantitative studies of the food consumed by children enrolled at the National Child Research Center, Washington, D. C., were made during the period 1931–36. *Food Consumption of Children at the National Child Research Center*, Department of Agriculture Circular No. 481, describes the types of meals served to children ranging in age from 24 to 71 months. Data on the food intake of these children is expressed in terms of quantities of common foods and in terms of essential nutrients. (10 cents.)

● The Advisory Committee on Education, appointed by the President to give consideration to the whole field of Federal relationships to State and local conduct of education, has prepared 19 staff studies and a pamphlet summary in addition to the general report of the committee, of which the following are off the press: Vocational Education, Staff Study No. 8 (50 cents); Library Service, Staff Study No. 11 (15 cents); The National Youth Administration, Staff Study No. 13 (15 cents); and The Federal Government and Education (10 cents).

● A handbook designed to assist State and local communities through cooperative action of relief administrators to see the characteristics of the population receiving public assistance, the types and amount of public assistance received, and the interrelations of the several forms of aid rendered has been prepared by the Social Security Board.

A simple standard form for collecting data on families and persons receiving assistance and directions, standard definitions for the use of the schedule, and the arrangement of tables into which the information thus collected can be cast are also included. Write for *A Plan for a Case Census of Recipients of Public Assistance*, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics Report No. 2 (15 cents).

● More than 150 photographic enlargements of National and State parks go to make up the new traveling exhibits covering some 60 subjects and illustrating the scenic beauty, geology, flora and fauna, historic sites, and camping and other recreational activities of the National Park Service, according to Arno B. Cammerer, Director.

The collections available without charge for a 1- or 2-week display in libraries, museums, and educational institutions are available in two sizes—20 by 25 inches and 15 by 20 inches.

A catalog explaining the collections will be supplied free upon application to the National Park Service, Washington, D. C.

● The average life of a milk bottle is 35 trips, ranging from fewer than 10 to more than 90 trips. Data on the life of bottles, the various plans or systems used by dealers to get bottles returned from the routes, on the organization, management, equipment, and operation of milk-bottle exchanges for collecting, cleaning, and returning lost bottles, and on methods for preventing the misuse of milk bottles, cans, and crates, are given in *Milk-bottle Losses and Ways to Reduce Them*, Department of Agriculture Circular No. 469. (10 cents.)

● Woods used for floors, the subfloor, the finish floor, laying the finish floor, and floor finishing are the sections into which *Selection, Installation, Finish, and Maintenance of Wood Floors for Dwellings*, Department of Agriculture Circular No. 489, is divided (5 cents).

● *Courses in Sanitary Engineering Given by Universities* and *Extent to Which Case Records Guide the Nursing Service* are to be found in the No. 2 and No. 3 issues of the current volume of *Public Health Reports*. (5 cents each.)

Recognizing Possibilities in Elementary Science

by Helen K. Mackintosh, Specialist in Elementary Education

What Should Be the Place of Science in the Elementary School Program?

★★★ Elementary school science can play a most important role in the education of boys and girls provided that State and local school administrators and curriculum builders give it a place in their planning. Few States list elementary science as a required course as in the case of reading and arithmetic, geography, spelling, and other subject fields. Frequent comments from teachers have indicated further that although there may be a course of study in nature or elementary science, no time is provided for it in the school program, and the inclusion of science experiences is largely incidental. Several recent books which offer suggested daily programs for the elementary school on the basis of areas of experience indicate science as 1 of the 5 or 6 types of experience into which some 14 or 15 subject fields should be grouped—social studies, science, language arts, creative expression, practical arts, and skills. Recent publications of several State departments of education have described instructional procedures in elementary schools. They have listed science as 1 of 5 or 6 special areas around which school experiences are organized. If we can presuppose from these illustrations that there is a trend toward more emphasis upon elementary science, some of the possibilities for this field may well be pointed out.

How May Teachers Learn With Children?

Science offers to the teacher one of the finest avenues for learning with children. In arithmetic, in reading, in geography, in language the teacher has a basic knowledge which she uses over and over again although in different relationships. In science she must know principles rather than detailed information, and must be able to apply them. She must be able to track down sources of information which will help her to answer specific questions. This year it may be the water boatmen and a colony of ants; next year dragonflies and grasshoppers that represent the insect family. This year's fifth grade may wish to demonstrate their knowledge of magnetism and electricity by constructing a simple telegraph or a telephone, but next year's group may choose to collect illustrations of the use of the electromagnet. The blue heron, the robin, the bluebird, and the kildeer may claim attention because of children's observation. Next year in the same school the meadowlark, the brown thrasher, the barn swallow, the redwinged blackbird, or any one of 30 or 40 other birds that frequent the same locality may hold the center of the educational stage. Similar illustrations may be drawn from plants, animals, rocks and minerals, constellations, and other phases of elementary science work. Hundreds of members of the insect, plant, water, animal, bird families may be the specific means of teaching. The teacher cannot hope to know each one as an individual unless she has become a science specialist, but she can apply principles, and she can know sources.

Young explorers collect specimens of water life along the creek.

Such variation in the actual content of learning makes it necessary for the teacher to be ready and willing to learn with children; to say frankly, "I don't know, but I can suggest some sources of information that will help us." It is the teacher's responsibility to see that previous experiences are not duplicated, but that they are used as a starting point. Together, the teacher and the class may pool their common background of information by listing on the blackboard or on newsprint sheets, "What We Already Know," "What We Want to Find Out," and "Where We Can Look for Information." Such an approach makes science a cooperative study.

Experiences in this field lie very close to the natural interests of children. They invite activity—physical, mental, and manipulative—the use of real materials, of pets, of the out-of-doors itself, and of the school environment. The system of heating and ventilation in use, room temperature, lighting, acoustics of the auditorium, cleanliness in toilet rooms and in classrooms, growing plants in the classroom, drainage of the playground, kinds of plants and shrubs used to beautify the school ground—all of these problems with their many ramifications offer first-hand opportunities for learning on the part of both teachers and children.

Boys and girls invariably make a favorable response to the opportunity to take an excursion which has been properly planned for in advance. If a trip away from the school grounds is impossible, each child may stake off in his own yard or on the school ground a space a foot square. Within the space chosen each may collect every kind of plant, animal, insect, or mineral specimens that can be found, may list them for identification, or having pooled their collections, the class may use some of the examples most commonly found, as a basis for group study. Here again the teacher should participate as one member of the group.

The teacher's own hobby may take the form of a science collection, which may serve as an incentive to children to make collections in a wide variety of fields. Suggestions for hobbies in science run into the hundreds as mentioned in various bulletins of public-school systems which encourage children to become specialists in some field through following an individual hobby.

Some of the most successful science rooms have developed in situations where a teacher and a group of children have taken over a vacant classroom, have planned ways and means of supplying home-made equipment, and have brought together there the science materials and science information on which the whole school could draw. Such a room frequently has much more significance than does a ready-made science laboratory in a new building. Children have a more personal interest because they have had a part in planning.

More than in any other field the teacher can give herself science training on the job. To supplement her own individual efforts, a number of public-school systems have found it possible to arrange with science specialists to offer courses at the college level, not in terms of textbook content, but based primarily upon practical experiments and demonstrations which teachers can develop with their own pupils, as units of experience. To further supplement the teacher's background, monthly excursions to nearby parks have been conducted under the guidance of a specialist, so that teachers can secure specimens and first-hand information which can be used by themselves in turn as they take their groups of children or committees over the same park, at different seasons of the year.

Group cooperation in preparing food on the nature hike.

What Part Should Textbooks Play in Elementary School Science?

Although the child's first experience needs to be with concrete materials and objects, he needs to have access to many and varied reference sources, which will give him further detailed information. Sometimes these sources may disagree. Such disagreement may be helpful in developing in the child the scientific attitude of mind. He will learn to raise such questions as "What is the copyright date of this book? Is the author an authority in his field? How many sources do I need to consult to verify a statement?" Just as in the case of the teacher, the pupil will not want to store his mind with information, but he will learn to know a number of different kinds of reference books which can direct him to the information that he needs.

How Can Science Vitalize Other Areas of Learning?

At the present time people in the science field are questioning the use of social studies as the core of an elementary school curriculum. They are asking, "May not science be the core of certain units, just as logically as literature, social studies, or any other field? Must science always be merely a related field?" Attempts to use a science experience as an organizing center for oral and written expression, reading, arithmetic, spelling, handwriting, art, music, literature, and social studies indicate a natural relationship. In a large city school system the school which serves as a science demonstration center gives its school newspaper a science title. Recreational reading materials are rich in their use of real animals and real nature and science experiences. Factual reading materials exist in a number of excellent science series designed for grade-school use. Arithmetic may have an important science angle when it calls for measuring, weighing, or estimating in experimenting or constructing. Spelling and handwriting contribute to any type of written record whether it be a nature diary, a report of experiments, or a bibliography of reference sources. Creative expression through art, music, and literature is evidenced in art exhibits, in original songs, and in original poems and stories with nature and science themes. Social studies concepts often are clarified by means of science. Problems related to tools and machines, food, clothing, shelter, transportation and communication, find their most satisfactory solution through demonstration in a science classroom.

The possibilities in elementary school science are endless. They call for ability on the part of the teacher to recognize in the curriculum and in the environment both inside and outside of school, the experiences which involve science principles.

★ ★ ★

Guidance in CCC Camps

(Concluded from page 213)

individual enrollee into active elements of the program.

Rating Practice

Another important development in many camps is the practice of rating enrollees every month or quarter, not only on their participation in the educational program but also on their conduct in camp and their progress and attitude on the work project. These ratings serve as an excellent index of the progress of each man and bring to the attention of the camp staff those who require assistance as well as those who are in line for promotion.

Here and there across the country, systematic attempts have been made to assist discharged enrollees in securing employment and readjusting themselves to normal civilian life. In New York City, Cincinnati, and Los Angeles, referral and placement services have been established by various organizations for ex-enrollees. In New England, all enrollees are registered with the United States Employment Service prior to their enrollment and referral cards are forwarded to the Employment Service upon their discharge. In the majority of camps, officials attempt to secure jobs for qualified enrollees by contacting employers.

The guidance program pays dividends not only to the enrollee but to the corps itself and to society. There is a direct correlation between an effective guidance program and the successful administration of a camp. Neither the CCC nor an individual camp can operate efficiently without guidance. Its results are directly reflected in the number of men who receive disciplinary discharges, the number of men who "go over the hill" or desert, and the number of men who are refused reenrollment. Its effects are also mirrored in the amount and quality of the work performed.

According to a careful study made by Kirkland Sloper, a camp adviser in Massachusetts, an intensive program of individual guidance increased the participation of a group of enrollees more than twofold and had an equally significant effect on the quality of the work performed. He concluded that if the CCC "is to fill its place in the entire picture of secondary education it must continue and enlarge its emphasis upon individual guidance as the basis for the educational program."

A number of developments point to the continued but more rapid growth of guidance work in the camps. In July 1937, the War Department in a letter to corps area commanders called attention to the fact that homesickness is one of the main causes for enrollees leaving camp without authority. The letter further stated that "this feeling should be combated through general persuasion and frequent conversations on the part of both company officers and educational advisers with young enrollees."

Special Camps

More recently, the War Department acting jointly with the Labor Department, issued another directive which has far-reaching implications. This letter authorizes the assignment of selected enrollees to special camps because of the educational opportunities available therein. The letter states in part:

"It is fully realized that it is impossible to send all selectees to camps of their preference but it is felt that in some cases such preferential assignments can be made with a resultant improvement in the training possibilities of the corps and a resultant decrease in desertion, disciplinary discharges, and discontent subsequent to enrollment."

A third development is the recent establishment of the Occupational Information and Guidance Service in the Office of Education. As this service progresses, it will be possible to integrate its efforts with those of the camps.

The far-reaching effects of the guidance work carried on in the camps can be seen in the fact that the age of maximum crime, as represented by arrested offenders, has risen in the past few years from 19 to 22 years. Scores of penologists, jurists, and social workers attribute much of this decrease in crime to the establishment of the CCC. H. W. Jespenson, superintendent of the Nebraska Reformatory for Men, stated that the CCC was responsible for a 25 percent decrease since 1937 in the number of inmates in the reformatory. Federal Judge E. Marvin Underwood, commenting on a 16-year-old boy who was sentenced to a reform school, for 5 years, made the following significant statement:

"It's a pity that the money that will be spent to reform this boy, after he has committed two crimes and has started life on the wrong foot, could not have been spent in a more sensible fashion. I don't like to see the public money spent when it might be too late, and the money might be wasted. How much better it would be for the Government to extend the CCC opportunities to younger boys, such as this one, and steer him into the right path before he had made a mistake."

Developments in College Libraries

by Ralph M. Dunbar, Chief, Library Service Division

★★★ College and university libraries are now emphasizing the reader and the use of books rather than the books themselves. Although it is important to have adequate resources available, it is still more important to see that these printed materials are being utilized to aid the college and the university in attaining their educational objectives.

In a consideration of library developments in this field, the growth of book collections, of course, should be taken into account. James T. Gerould, former librarian at Princeton University, tracing the growth of 36 selected colleges from 1876 to 1930, found that in 1876, the average content was 12,145 volumes; in 1908, it was 55,216 volumes; in 1930, it was 132,069 volumes. Although in 1900 there was no university with a million volumes, in 1938 no less than nine contained a million volumes or more each. According to the latest figures compiled by the Office of Education, the libraries in our institutions of higher education at present contain well over 62,000,000 bound volumes. Despite limited book funds, our college and university libraries really have shown remarkable growth.

It is significant, however, that the professional literature and the statements of college administrators and librarians are now stressing the proper utilization of these printed materials, rather than this physical growth. Regarding the library, the North Central Association says: "The Library should provide the reading facilities needed to make the educational program effective and there should be evidence that such facilities are appropriately used." Instead of a set number of books being required, the quality of the collection and the performance of the library judged on certain criteria are stressed.

Generally speaking, college and university libraries have two major functions. One is that of serving undergraduate instruction and the other is that of aiding research and graduate work. These functions exist in varying degrees at different institutions, depending upon the emphasis placed upon undergraduate instruction or upon research at a given institution. To a large extent, these functions present different problems to the library, although changes in undergraduate teaching methods and organization, with stress on independent study and thought, are tending to lessen the differences as far as the library is concerned.

Needs and Procedures Altered

In the undergraduate field, the college library has been profoundly affected by these new teaching methods and by the modifications made in the traditional 4-year unit. Survey courses, honor courses, independent study programs, and tutorial plans along with the Harvard house plan have greatly altered library needs and procedures. Under most of them, more reading and more use of library facilities are required on the part of both faculty and students. Instead of a few books, many are needed for a given course.

These changes have presented new problems to the libraries, in the way of additional physical facilities, decentralizing of the book collections in many instances, increased book stocks, and duplication of printed materials. A. F. Kuhlman, now director Joint University Libraries, Nashville, estimated that $40,000 would be needed to equip a liberal arts college of 1,500 students with an adequate book stock to meet course needs in the junior college under the Chicago plan. As an instance of the increased use made of the library may be cited the report of the president of Southwestern College in Tennessee, that the tutorial plan was a large factor in raising the average number of volumes read annually per student from 41.3 volumes to 73.46 and 75.59.

Until recently, however, there have not been many studies to measure the effects of these developments upon the library, or what is perhaps more important, to evaluate the contribution of the library to the new educational procedures. It has been taken for granted more or less that the libraries were in a position to meet these responsibilities and that they were so doing.

Measuring Performance

College libraries are now turning their attention to this problem of measuring their performance. A significant development has been the formulation of a plan for self-surveys of the small college libraries. This undertaking is being sponsored by the College Library Advisory Board of the American Library Association, with a view to discovering the extent to which these libraries are capable of meeting the objectives of the institution.

Another illustration is that of the study sponsored by the Association of American Colleges to see how the work of the library may be integrated with the teaching work of the liberal arts college. Still another is under way at the University of Chicago, where in order to evaluate certain results of the Chicago plan, a careful analysis is being made of the student reading. At the same university, Lulu R. Reed has developed a technique for measuring the competency of students to use a college library. The University of Washington, after several years of experimenting, has now begun an organized readers' advisory service, another indication of the trend towards seeing that the resources of the library are properly utilized.

Librarians and students of library problems are considering, therefore, not merely gross circulation, but rather what types of books are being read by what types of students, differentiated as to class, sex, and scholarship. They are also seeking to discover what effect the use of the library is having upon the students.

The obtaining of such data requires far more professional and clerical labor than the majority of our college libraries can afford. In an effort to overcome this difficulty, some librarians are proposing to introduce punched card machines to perform the statistical work connected with library procedures.

At the University of Texas, where such a machine has been in operation, it has been found that a study of the distribution of circulation by class of book and by type of reader, which required 2,000 hours of clerical time, could be accomplished by 125 hours of machine work; in other words, in about one-sixteenth of the time.

Two Developments

If attention is turned from the task of serving undergraduate needs to that of aiding research and graduate work, at least two important developments may be noted. One is that the universities and colleges which have research functions to fulfill are changing their acquisition policies to a large extent; and the other is that a determined effort is being made to render these research collections more available to scientists and scholars.

As regards the acquisition of materials, libraries have in the past competed against one another in an effort to attain in a comparatively short time that position which has taken the European research libraries many years to achieve. Except for budget limitations, each library has built up in an individualistic manner its own collection, regardless of the policies or holdings of other institutions. Within recent years, however, there has been a growing tendency to substitute planning and cooperation for this individualistic method.

As a result of this change, before purchases of new source materials, documents, manuscripts, and other research items are made, the holdings of other universities and colleges are considered and frequently agreement is reached upon the division of the field, so that as far as possible the collections will be supplementing, not duplicating, one another. If one institution has already built up a special collection in a certain period of English history, the other tries to keep out of that field and specialize in another. Instances of such agreements may be cited as those at the University of North Carolina and Duke, at Vanderbilt and the joint institutions there, and at other places.

(Continued on page 219)

Libraries Turn Attention Toward Young People

by Nora E. Beust, Specialist in School Libraries

★★★ Statistics gathered by the American Library Association show that library registration of school children is often as high as 80 percent, while that of adults, even in selected groups such as League of Women Voters, Y. W. C. A., Y. M. C. A., is rarely higher than between 25 to 30 percent. The time is fast coming when librarians will be called upon to close the gap between the age level of their patrons and the population span. In most libraries the children up to high-school age have expert, or at any rate interested assistance from the librarians of the children's departments. The adults also have a department organized to suit their needs. In large libraries they find readers' advisers; in small libraries, if they wish to confer regarding their reading, they usually find a congenial staff member.

What about the young person who wishes to go beyond the children's department? He ventures out into the adult department, exhausts a certain group of books which he wants to read, discovers a few more books that appeal and perhaps asks a question or two of a librarian in the adult department; and then finds that he is not wholly satisfied. He may not know what he is seeking, but he does know that there is something that he wants.

Youth Tell Their Story, a publication of the American Council on Education, contains the following significant information in regard to the use of libraries by Maryland youth as indicated in the figures and table. Figure I shows that 51 percent of the city youth took advantage of available library service and only 31.5 percent of the young people on farms used the libraries their communities provided. Figure II shows that when the data are considered from the point of view of the school grades completed, a progressive increase in the use of libraries was found with each grade level attained. In spite of this fact the library registration of youth drops sharply after they leave school. Of youth, 40.7 percent said that they obtained reading material from sources other than the public library in answer to a question regarding the reasons for not using available library service.

FIGURE 1. Extent to Which Farm and Nonfarm Youth Used Available Public Library

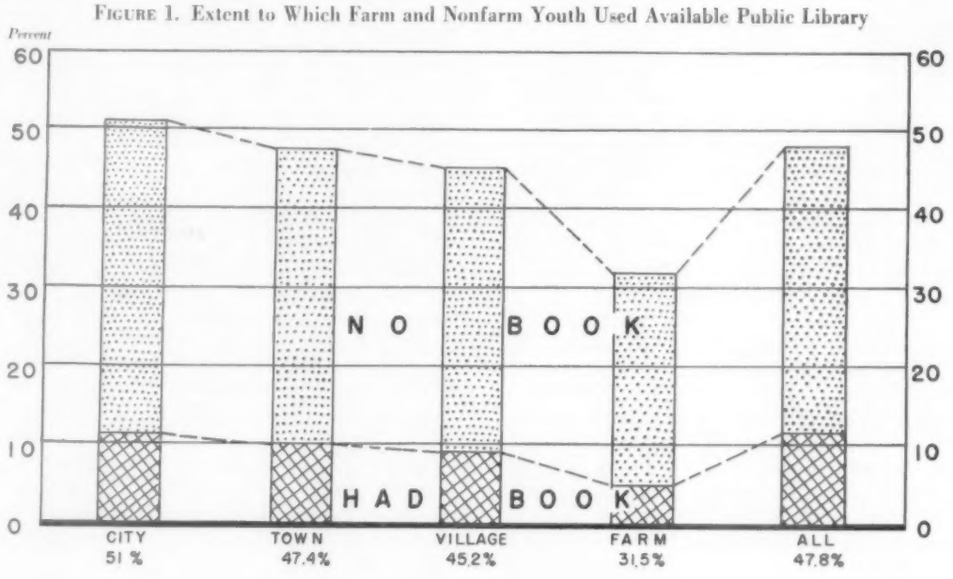
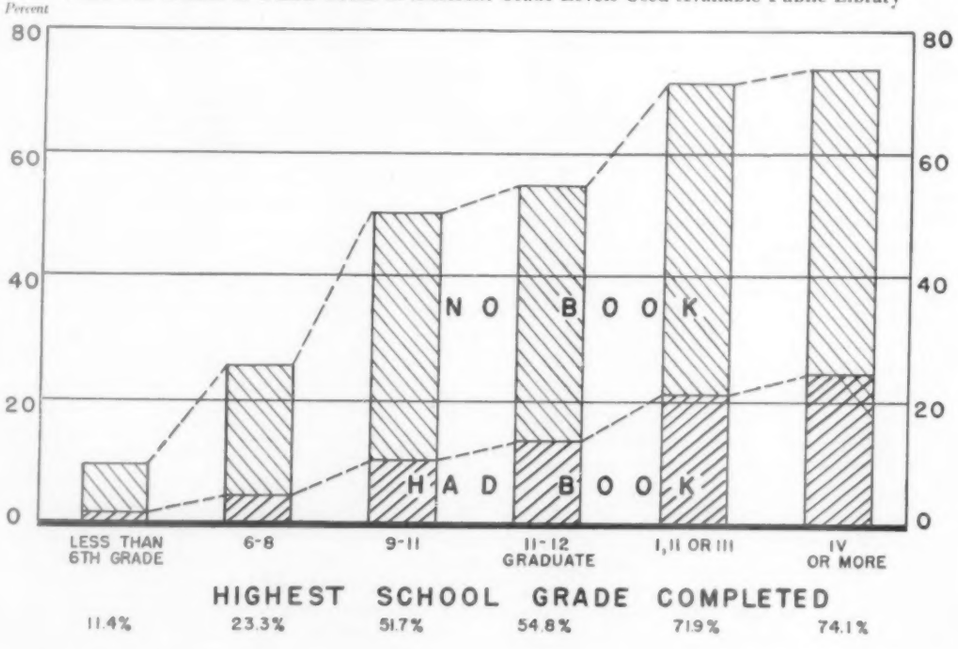


FIGURE 2. Extent to Which Youth of Different Grade Levels Used Available Public Library



Important Method

There is a distressing decline in the use of the library by the boys and girls after they leave the children's department. R. E. Ellsworth in his *The Distribution of Books and Magazines in Selected Communities* found in comparing the library population with the general population in South Chicago, that there were twice as many 10-year-olds using the library as 20-year-olds. The situation is not peculiar to South Chicago. Furthermore, William C. Haygood in his *Who Uses the Public Library* shows that students made up almost 50 percent of the total adult registrants in three large cities. This seems to indicate that many young people associate books with formal school assignments rather than with their own intellectual life.

Librarians have long been aware of the fact that the work of the children's department in libraries has not resulted in creating the adult clientele which a study of the activities of children's departments would lead us to expect. We are beginning to realize that there is a definite period between childhood and adulthood. It is to provide for this period that the coordinator, the young people's librarian, is necessary in the public library and in the school.

A librarian who wants to understand youth, who is educated and trained in working with youth, can help young people to realize that

books are necessary for intelligent living today. Gratifying results are attained by librarians who strive to make books an integral part of the young person's living. A survey made in Omaha, Nebr., by May Ingles, librarian of the Technical High School, where this effort is made, showed that 62 plus percent of 2,000 high-school graduates had public-library cards 4 years after they had left school.

Distressing Decline

An important method that may be adopted by librarians to discover needs of youth and to make books more vital to them is the case study. This method has not been feasible for many librarians, however, because of the inadequate size of the library staff. At present the mass or crowd of young people is brought so forcibly to the librarian's attention that it is difficult to be aware of the problem of the individual.

An illustration of an interesting case study that shows the need for individual guidance in the realm of books is one carried on by a librarian member of a class in high-school book collections at the University of Chicago last summer. The reading of a 16-year-old girl who was having difficulty making the transition to adult life was studied. This young girl's mother managed to make a happy home for the 16-year-old girl and her two younger sisters, although her income was small. The subject of the study apparently dreaded growing up and facing the realities and struggles around her which entailed accepting responsibilities in the household. She was precocious in many ways but childish in others. She was hoping to be able to get a scholarship to the university since her ambition was to become a lawyer. She had read widely of many types of juvenile books, but had not changed her card to the adult department until recently because the other collection seemed to supply her needs. She recognized the fact that she did not enjoy reading the novels which some of her schoolmates were reading and discussing because she hesitated to give up her irresponsible youth.

Here was a reader who needed adult books which would permit her to experience vicariously the satisfactions that come with responsibility. According to psychologists, if she did not grow up emotionally it would be hard for the people who had to live with her, and her chances of becoming neurotic would be increased. Society is burdened with the care of adults who live on an infantile level of development. Similar case studies give the young people's librarians some basis for discovering the reading needs of their clientele. Librarians often have the impression of the mass or crowd rather than the individual. Types of books that fill the varying needs of youth can be supplied more satisfactorily if the librarian studies her clientele as individuals who cannot be separated from their environment. The work takes on reality if the librarian has facts rather than suppositions as the basis from which to work.

Reasons given for not using available library services

Reasons given	Percentage not using available library		
	Male	Female	Total
Not interested in reading	56.1	38.5	47.9
Reads magazines and other books	33.2	49.3	40.7
Owes money; difficulty with library rules	2.1	1.6	1.8
Inconvenient distance or hours	1.4	2.0	1.7
Other reasons	7.2	8.6	7.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of youth	2,673	2,362	5,035

The school, elementary and secondary, and public-library librarians must work together if the desired results are to be achieved. If book experiences in school give satisfactions, young readers will continue, during and after school days, to seek these satisfactions in books borrowed from the public library. Because of shyness or indifference or misunderstanding some boys and girls need guidance in the effective use of the school library as well as of the public library. Cooperation between schools and public libraries is invaluable.

Need for Specific Service

Librarians have recognized the need for specific service to youth. The school and children's library division of the American Library Association was established in January 1936. In June 1937 this group sponsored a round-table discussion preceding the meeting of the American Library Association. About 50 persons, including educators, representatives of social service agencies, parents, and librarians, considered the needs and the possibilities of more adequate library service to youth. The consensus of opinion seemed to be that though there is considerable good library service to youth, some libraries give indifferent service and other libraries do not welcome young people because they disturb adults. Among the questions discussed were:

(a) How can libraries cooperate with other educational agencies and with civic, social and recreational agencies to achieve a more satisfactory service to young people?

(b) What is necessary to make library work with young people more adequate?

Five conferences on young people's reading were organized and conducted in the spring of 1937 by librarians of New York State at the suggestion and the request of the Library Extension Division. Seven similar conferences were held in New York State during 1938. Specific improvements in young people's library service may be traced to these stimulating conferences.

Data Gathered

The young people's reading round table, a section of the American Library Association, established approximately 12 years ago, has gathered data on service to young people through a questionnaire sent out in April 1937. It was found that 20 large cities were providing librarians especially chosen because of their ability to work with young people. In a few libraries there are special rooms filled with books selected to meet the needs of young people. In some libraries there are special sections of books for young adults. The young people's librarian has the potential tools and information to guide young people to find fruitful and significant ways of living within adolescence. Young people need literature that has meaning for them. Young people want a philosophy. A philosophy of life does make a difference. Here is a challenge for workers with youth who know their book stock and try to understand their clientele.

★ ★ ★

Developments in College Libraries

(*Continued from page 217*)

Preliminary to this planning must come careful surveys of the resources of a given region or section. An illustration of this, although not restricted solely to college and university libraries, is the recently completed survey of the research materials available in the Southern States, listing the location of and describing the various collections of manuscripts, newspapers, government publications, periodicals and society publications, and research materials on special subjects. Inventories, such as this, reveal where weaknesses exist, serve as a basis for a cooperative acquisition plan, and show what material is now available.

In the matter of making research material more generally accessible, university and college libraries have progressed notably, a fact which becomes very significant when it is realized how unevenly distributed and widely scattered these collections of printed materials are. One means of bringing about this availability has been a survey such as the one just mentioned. Still another has been the sponsoring, by university libraries along with other types of libraries, of such undertakings as the Union List of Serials, which indicates the location and the holdings of various scientific and scholarly journals. University libraries are also benefiting greatly from such bibliographical tools as the Union Catalog with its fifteen million cards at the Library of Congress. Similar activity is being pushed in other regions of the country.

Moreover, the cause of availability has been strikingly furthered by the advent of the microfilm. The modern processes of photography, in the opinion of many librarians, may revolutionize the distribution of printed

(*Concluded on page 223*)

THE VOCATIONAL SUMMARY

Is He Thankful?

"When I started to high school I had nothing to look forward to. Now I own a third interest in our farm swine herd, a third interest in a new tractor, and will farm 240 acres next year in cooperation with my dad and brother. I think farming is the basic industry of the world and see great hopes for the future."

So writes an Iowa farm boy who 5 years ago moved from south central Minnesota to Iowa Falls, Iowa, and enrolled in the vocational agriculture course offered in the local high school.

In his story of his progress, this boy, Don Robinson, tells how he developed from a lazy, indifferent lad into an ambitious, energetic individual, how through his supervised farm practice work both he and his father became interested in farming not as just a way of making a living but as a profession and a way of living; how as a student he became interested in community life and community service; how he helped to develop through experiment a variety of high-yielding corn which was distributed to farmers in the Iowa Falls community; and how he with other vocational agriculture students procured certified potato seed and sold it at wholesale prices to farmers, and made purebred swine available to the community at a reasonable charge.

Don closes his ode to the vocational agriculture course and the vocational agriculture teacher as follows: "The past 4 years of my life have been the happiest I have ever spent. I now have a goal and a future to plan for. My interest in agriculture has come from a scientific study of the advantages and possibilities of success which a career of farming represents." And he adds: "It's a real feeling to know there is a vocational agriculture teacher willing to give his unbiased opinion on these problems."

Supply, Demand, Turnover

Encouraging to those eligible for teaching positions in home economics in Maryland is the report of the director of vocational education for the State, John J. Seidel, that "the supply of and demand for home economics teachers in white schools continues to balance." This year, according to the Maryland report, "there were no available teachers in the middle of the year, and considerable difficulty was experienced in filling several vacancies after Christmas. Teacher turnover during the year is ascribed to: Marriage, 5; inefficiency, 1; health, 1; and teaching outside of State, 3.

At the close of the fiscal year, ended June 30, 1938, there were 127 white and 21 Negro teachers of home economics education in Maryland high schools.

Pottery and Succotash

The impetus given in different ways to "home industries," "the fireside occupations," or "arts and crafts," as they are variously designated in the past 5 or 6 years, and in the educational training of those engaged in these occupations lends particular interest to the work of individual groups engaged in these employments.

Outstanding among these groups are the Plymouth Potters who carry on in the 200-year old Sparrow House in Plymouth Mass. This group is famous among other things, for its succotash bowls. And just by way of helping to make its bowls known, it serves periodic succotash dinners whose fame is already widespread. And succotash a la New England, you must understand, is something far different from the sweet corn-lima bean combination commonly known by that name. It consists of chicken and corned beef, yellow turnips, hulled corn and pea beans—a "very hearty dish" someone has designated it.

Trainee at Plymouth Potters fashioning a reproduction of an early New England bean pot.

Here is what a columnist for the Boston Herald Traveler recently wrote of a succotash dinner at Sparrow House:

"There was a fire burning in the big old fireplace, and a lighted candle in each of the criss-cross leaded glass windows, as well as lighted candles on the tables. At each place the guests found a bouquet of herbs with one or two small flowers in it. The dishes used were all made at the Plymouth Pottery Shop.

"Glasses of cranberry cocktail were served first, then succotash and wonderful graham rolls and big wooden bowls of the prettiest and most delicious salad made by Miss Alden. Hot apple pudding with whipped cream for dessert, coffee and a delectable herb tea."

Miss Alden, it should be explained, is the director of Plymouth Potteries, under whose supervision the work of the group has been built up and carried on.

Writing editorially in the Old Colony Memorial published in Plymouth, the editor of that paper describes the atmosphere of Sparrow House on the occasion of a succotash dinner as follows:

"Shadows playing over the heavy rafters as the blaze in the huge fireplace leaps and crackles—the gleam of candles on dinnerware shaped by the very potters who serve the food—red berries decorating the otherwise austere panels—nosegays of autumn flowers—huge bowls full of a salad so varied and brilliant in color that it looks as though someone had whipped up a painter's palette—all set off by row after row of fascinating pieces of original pottery glowing in the chaste but charming hues—all serve to provide an excursion into the seventeenth century for those who attend the dinners occasionally served at the Sparrow House by the Plymouth Potters."

Recently, Plymouth Potters lost their klinhouse and expensive electrical equipment.

Both the Massachusetts State Board for Vocational Education and the local public schools have cooperated in the training program carried on by Plymouth Potters.

A Lot of Visits

The value of visits by home economics teachers to the homes of their students for the purpose of getting a better understanding of home conditions and the problems which might well be emphasized in class instruction, has been stressed by State boards for vocational education for a number of years

The report of the Pennsylvania State Board for Vocational Education for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1938, is of interest in this respect. It shows, for instance, that home economics teachers in the State made 5,902 visits to the homes of their students, which stimulated 4,272 return visits of parents to the schools and resulted in 471 conferences with parents on home projects.

The report shows, further, that 23,329 home projects of more than a dozen types were undertaken by homemaking students during the year.

Another form of visitation—visits of the itnerant teacher-trainer at the Pennsylvania-Stiate College to graduates of the teacher training courses, in the schools in which these graduates are employed in Pennsylvania are

reported by the State. In some instances, the teacher-trainer is accompanied on such visits by members of the home economics staff of the college. Through these visits, records of the individual teacher's progress is kept. Such visits may result, also, in the addition of new courses to the teacher-training curriculum at the college.

Among the F. F. A.'s

Recent reports from local chapters seem to indicate that the busier members of the Future Farmers of America are, the more activities they take over. Here are a few examples to illustrate this statement picked at random from recent records.

Late in February, Governor Herbert H. Lehman of New York made the ninth annual 4-H awards sponsored by a New York farm journal to the eight youths in New York who have played an outstanding part as members of the Boy Scouts, the Juvenile Grange, 4–H Clubs, and the Future Farmers of America. And F. F. A. members—Irving Davis of Corning, and Ward Burdick of Central Square—captured two of the awards.

Here's a report from Carlisle, Ky., that the Carlisle F. F. A. chapter is carrying on a "Lord's Acre" project started 2 years ago, under which members give one-tenth of the returns from supervised farm practice projects they carry on in connection with their vocational agriculture course, to a local church of their choice. At Christmas time the chapter distributed 150 baskets of fruit to needy persons.

Out in Hot Springs, Ark., the State F. F. A. Association, composed of 164 chapters, is sponsoring a safety move to equip all horse drawn vehicles with reflectors and lights. Each of the 164 chapters in the State will contact local farmers and solicit their cooperation in the plan. The project is a cooperative one with the Governor, the State Safety Council, and Arkansas State police.

Milton, W. Va., F. F. A is cooperating with the Sportsmen's League and State Conservation Commission in a wildlife conservation project. Last summer they assisted in inoculating, packing in 8-pound bags, and distributing, over 3,000 pounds of grain seed to other F. F. A. chapters and to farmers in southern West Virginia. Each bag contained instructions for planting the seed. As a result, many birds and game found shelter under the cover made by the grain crops and a supply of winter food from the grain itself. Twenty-seven of the Milton chapter members competed in a contest to determine which could raise the best crop from the seed provided for the wildlife project.

Members of another West Virginia chapter, that in Petersburg, treated more than 500 horses, colts, and mules for bots during the month of January. They arranged in advance the dates and hours they would be in the various communities and requested all farmers interested in the treatment to have their animals there on time.

Attractive 200-year-old fireplace in Sparrow House, Plymouth.

Conferences Consider Problems

Several conferences of importance were held under the auspices of the Office of Education early in the year.

First of these conferences was the one on evaluation of the community programs in education for home and family living, now being carried out in Wichita, Kans.; Box Elder County, Utah; Obion County, Tenn.; and Toledo, Ohio, under the sponsorship of the Office of Education and State boards of education. This conference, which was attended by representatives of three of the States in which the community programs have been set up and by specialists in family life education and in evaluation, was an outgrowth of a similar meeting held in November to consider ways and means of developing programs in these centers. The object of the January conference was to consider what data should be collected and what kinds of evidence should be sought to show whether progress is being made toward the objectives set up for these community programs.

During the spring months conferences will be held in each of the four community centers, in which representatives of various school levels and school subjects on which emphasis on home and family living may be given, will participate, as well as family life and evaluation consultants and representatives of the United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, and State offices of education.

During the week of January 23 a committee on standards in vocational agriculture, consisting of two representatives in the field of agricultural education from each of the four administrative regions of the country, met in Office of Education headquarters to discuss agricultural education standards with members of the staff of the Office.

Three definite actions were taken at this conference. The committee decided first to formulate in writing a statement of the philosophy of vocational education in agriculture and to set up a study of standards for this field of education. Secondly, the committee set up areas in which standards are needed primarily for local programs of instruction in vocational agriculture and also for administration, supervision, and teacher-training. Finally, the committee decided that its principal function is not to discuss minimum standards but rather to discuss a sliding scale of standards for vocational agriculture whose purpose would be to stimulate local communities to improve their instructional programs.

Third of the Office of Education winter conferences was that held the second week in February and attended by Office of Education representatives, representatives of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, and 10 other persons —officers and staff members of State and city police departments. The objective of this conference was to develop a report on standards for police-training programs which will be sound from the standpoint of the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the vocational division of the Office of Education. This report is now in process of preparation.

C. M. Arthur

EDUCATIONAL NEWS

In Public Schools

Curriculum Program

The State of Michigan Department of Public Instruction has recently issued its third report of progress on the "Michigan Curriculum Program." The report states:

The third year of the State curriculum program has been characterized by achievements and reports of promising movements in local schools. An appraisal of the curriculum program based upon the reports of 301 superintendents, commissioners, and supervisors indicates that curriculum study and curriculum improvements are widespread. Their replies indicate the following results:

1. Major curriculum changes numbering 202 ranging from the addition of vocational education to complete reorganization of a program.

2. Plans for curriculum programs and changes for next year (1938–39) number 234.

3. Organized faculty study groups in 154 cases.

4. Aims, basic points of view, and approaches of the State program receive almost unanimous approval.

School Transportation

According to a recent report of the State school commission of North Carolina there were, in 1937–38, 4,255 school busses in operation in that State; 306,953 children were transported; and the number of miles covered by the busses was 23,011,385. The total cost for transportation during the year was $2,443,168, the average cost per bus for the year was $574, and the average cost per child for the year was $7.95.

New Regulations

The present requirement of 12 semester-hours of graduate work in administration and supervision for administrative and supervisory certificates issued by the Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania has been extended so that by April 1, 1941, new entrants into the administrative and supervisory service of the public schools will have completed a year of graduate education or earned a master's degree in an approved graduate school, according to Lester K. Ade, superintendent of public instruction. The plan provides for additional education to the present requirements, and suggests that future administrative officers shall have had 18 semester-hours of graduate credit after April 1, 1939; 24 semester-hours of graduate credit for the year beginning April 1, 1940, and 30 semester-hours or a master's degree beginning April 1, 1941.

The study made by the department of public instruction reveals that more than 50 percent of the county, assistant county, and district superintendents have already earned the master's degree, and that a large number of superintendents have continued their education beyond this point toward the doctor's degree. At the recent State-wide election of superintendents, the certificates of election indicate that practically all of the newly elected superintendents have already met the standards of preparation suggested by the new regulation effective April 1, 1941.

Nonresident Attendance Increases

According to the 1937–38 report of the Missouri Public Schools, "During the school term 1930–31, the year previous to the enactment of the free tuition law, when the pupil paid his own tuition, approximately 20,000 nonresident rural boys and girls attended high school. Since the enactment of the new law in which the State and rural districts together are required to pay the high-school tuition, the attendance of these nonresident pupils has greatly increased. For the 1937–38 school year 42,473 nonresident high-school pupils were enrolled. These rural school pupils went to school enough to establish an average daily attendance of approximately 37,309. The State apportionment to high-school districts on account of the attendance of nonresident pupils is made on the basis of $50 per pupil in average daily attendance. The total State apportionment was $1,865,460."

The Missouri report referred to is an illustrated publication showing many of the activities of the schools of the State.

Consider Regent's Inquiry

Six public meetings under the general title "Inquiring Into the Regents' Inquiry" are being held by the Public Education Association of New York City and cooperating organizations. The purpose of the meetings is to help citizens and educators to understand the recommendations of the regents' inquiry report and their bearing upon the public schools of the city. The subjects of the meetings are teacher training and selection, school finance, vocational schools, high schools, elementary schools, and the school health program.

Kindergartens in Utah

The State superintendent of public instruction of Utah in his biennial report, 1936–38, says: "A very gratifying observation is the fact that a large percentage of the local superintendents have made it possible to extend the school program downward to include some preschool education in the form of kindergartens. It is true that in most cases this instruction has covered only a 6-week summer term, but housing arrangements are being made in a few of our larger centers whereby this important part of childhood education will become a permanent addition to the regular school year."

Threefold Purpose

"View Pointe," a pictorial production from the 6-year high school at Grosse Pointe, Mich., has the following threefold purpose: To capitalize on the creative photographic and writing ability and enthusiasm of the students; to find a satisfactory substitute for the traditional senior annual; to use it as an effective and legitimate public relations instrument. The pictures in the publication were chosen from nearly 500 submitted by the two photography clubs. The editorial captions, the organization, and the features selected were also done by amateurs.

W. S. DEFFENBAUGH

★

In Libraries

New Hampshire Report

According to the 1936–38 biennial report of the New Hampshire Public Library Commission, of the 235 cities and towns in the State, 225 have their own free public libraries, either tax supported or endowed, or both. During the last complete fiscal year, 57,317 new books were purchased, 25 percent of these being for children and 75 percent for adults. Although library service is now being extended to the rural population of New Hampshire, the commission estimates that $26,000 instead of the $5,200 now being spent should be available if really adequate service is to be rendered to this part of the population.

Sailors Receive Books

The American Merchant Marine Library Association not only supplies the sailors on our ships with chests of books, but also serves 106 lighthouses. The same tender which carries the supplies to the keepers also takes boxes of specially selected books. If families also live in the lighthouses, some books for women and for children are included in the case. Limited budgets have prevented the association from developing this service as adequately as it would like.

Archival Movement

The archives division of the Illinois State Library is now housed in a new building of its own. At the recent dedicatory ceremonies, speakers noted numerous evidences of the acceleration and importance of the archival movement in the United States. An archives building with its provisions for the proper care of historical materials in the making, said one speaker, must be considered as a going business concern necessary not only to the historian and research student, but also to public officials.

Contributing Factors

Basing its report on returns from 35 cities of over 100,000 population in the United States and Canada, the American Library Association notes an increase in public library use in 1938 as compared with 1937. Among the factors contributing to this gain were extensive series of lectures and forums, trailer and messenger service to homes, the European situation, and larger book budgets. For example, the gain of 450,000 books borrowed for home use in Minneapolis during the first 11 months of the year is explained in part by the forums, lectures, and clubs which brought 30,000 people to the library. Seattle points to forums as a contributing cause of its increase, and St. Louis attributes its gain partly to adult education classes. Except in one or two cities, encouraging increases have been made in the use of nonfiction collections.

RALPH M. DUNBAR

★

In Other Government Agencies

National Park Service

The preservation and presentation in word, picture, and artifact of the way of life of the pioneer men and women who settled in the wilderness areas of the present Great Smoky Mountains National Park, half of which lies in Tennessee and the other half in North Carolina, is part of the long-range development program of the National Park Service.

Plans call for the establishment of a central museum area and a number of field exhibits consisting of groups of original mountain buildings—cabins (see illustration), barns, old mills, corn cribs, with all their surrounding fields, gardens, and orchards. Old roads, trails, and bridges in the areas selected for the establishment of the field exhibits would be preserved. Some of these old buildings have already been moved to selected sites by CCC enrollees. The buildings were carefully dismantled, the pieces numbered, and then moved and reassembled.

The Badlands National Monument in southwestern South Dakota, established through proclamation of President Roosevelt, stretches for 39 miles in an arc north of the White River and the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation. Title to the major portion of the land was recently acquired by the Department of the Interior by transfer from the State of South Dakota, the Department of Agriculture, the General Land Office, and by purchase from private owners. A modern highway traverses the monument from Cedar Pass, near its eastern boundary through Big Foot Pass, Dillon Pass, and the Pinnacles. An extension of the road is being built from Sage Creek to Sheep Mountain Table, in the southwestern corner of the monument.

Courtesy Division of Motion Pictures.

Old cabin in Cades Cove, Great Smoky National Park.

Works Progress Administration

Although more than 150 books in the American Guide Series—books and pamphlets prepared by the Federal Writers' Project, WPA—have appeared so far, almost a hundred more are nearing completion and twice as many more are projected.

Guidebooks have been prepared for each of the 48 States and for Alaska, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii. Besides the guides to cities and towns, the project is also producing guides to the important roadways in America, and books dealing with nationalities, with folklore, history, and many other subjects of social and cultural value.

Books in the American Guide Series are issued through sponsors who assume the responsibility for their publication, with the exception of *Washington: City and Capital* and *Intracoastal Waterways* which were issued through the Government Printing Office.

A *Catalog to the American Guide Series* will be sent upon request to the Federal Writers' Project, 1734 New York Avenue NW., Washington, D. C.

MARGARET F. RYAN

★ ★ ★

Developments in College Libraries

(*Concluded from page 219*)

material for research. In the case of rare and expensive items, no longer must a university library attempt to acquire every single item in a given subject field in order to fulfill its research obligations to its patrons. If the desired item is in another library, a photostat of a short article or a film of a longer may be purchased, and used at the local library by means of a projector or a reading machine. Still again, it is no longer necessary to restrict the use of research material to the institution possessing it, for a compact photographed reproduction may be sent to the requesting library without the danger that is involved whenever the original is forwarded.

In cases where the copyright and royalty questions are not involved, university libraries and others are cooperating in making films of rare and valuable documents and journals. The University of Chicago has made films of many of the journals, newspapers and pamphlet series issued at the time of the French Revolution, and is preparing to make arrangements whereby copies will be available to other libraries interested in this subject field. The microfilm is also proving a means of preserving rare material which otherwise might be lost through the deterioration of the paper.

These various cooperative endeavors on the part of the university and college libraries, such as agreements as to fields, mutual assistance in making material available, pooling resources wherever possible, all mean greater aid and more efficient service to the scholar. No less important developments are indicated in the field of library responsibility to undergraduate instruction. The present trend, as indicated by studies under way and by the emphasis upon performance, is distinctly towards finding means of integrating the work of the library with the teaching work of the institution.

PUBLICATION REQUEST BLANK

See Opposite Page for List of Publications

Date .....

SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS,
Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Kindly send to the address below the publications listed on this request blank. Find $..... enclosed (check or money order) in payment.

NUMBER OF COPIES	PUBLICATION NUMBER AND TITLE	AMOUNT
	SCHOOL LIFE, 1 year's service (10 issues $1).	
	Total	

Send publications to:

Name..... Street address.....

City..... State.....

Position.....

CUT OUT ALONG THIS LINE

129603 U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1939